The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Presidential campaign continues to be unprecedentedly quiet. One after another of the dates set by the politicians for the outburst of enthusiasm has passed. At first they were waiting for Congress to adjourn, as the veriest tyro knows that it is impossible to rouse the country while Congress is in session. Then, when Congress did adjourn, they explained that the extraordinary heat was chilling the political impetuosity of the nation. Afterwards it was the President's letter that we must wait for before the pent-up enthusiasm could break loose. Then, when at last everything seemed propitious, the backwardness of the campaign was accounted for by the cholera scare. That has now passed away, but the politicians remind us that it is really absurd to expect imposing demonstrations of the immense interest of the people in the pending election until after the "crops are gathered in." When they are, we are now told, there will be terrible excitement. But we fear these successive adjournments are ominous, and that November will be upon us without a clearly developed political paroxysm being anywhere discernible. People act as if their minds were firmly made up, or as if they were highly indifferent and resolved to remain so. All these indications certainly favor Democratic success.

Republican organs are inclined to be somewhat downcast over the small attendance at their League Convention at Buffalo on Thursday. It had been advertised as the biggest and altogether most extraordinary gathering of the sort ever held, but rather less than half the delegates expected were present, and the spectators were so few that President Clarkson did not think it worth while to make his address. This is solemnly accounted for by the dread of cholera. The Westerners would not come to Buffalo lest they might catch the infection from this city. Moreover, it is said that "the delegations from some States were lured off to Niagara Falls to see the great cataract." But we see no occasion for the gloomy view of the meeting taken by these despondent Republican papers. They ought to remember how much they suffered from the unbounded enthusiasm which marked their canvass in Vermont and Maine, and be thankful for the absence of anything of the kind in this State. Don't they know that it is precisely such disappointments as these that make the party "wake up," "take off their coats," and "force the fighting along the whole line"?

One result of the Maine election is very significant. The People's party, as the Nationalists in that State called themselves, made an active campaign, Bellamy himself taking the stump; and before the election the leaders were loudly claiming that they would poll at least 15,000 votes. Returns from all but a few scattering towns give them only 2,934. As this total also includes most of the Labor vote, which amounted to 1,296 in the last previous election, it is pretty evident that Maine "has no use for" Bellamyism, as was shown to be the case in Massachusetts last year, when its ticket secured only about 3,000 votes out of nearly 325,000.

Although the Prohibitionists stand no chance of carrying even a single Congressional district in the whole country, it is a matter of much importance to the politicians of both parties whether their vote this year is to maintain its previous size. So far as the Vermont and Maine elections cast any light upon this question, they indicate that the Prohibitionists will gain rather than lose ground next November. In Vermont they cast 1,650 votes for their ticket, against only 1,372 in September, 1888, and in Maine 3,383, against only 3,122 four years ago. This gain, though small in each State, is significant because it was secured notwithstanding the fact that the Republicans had done nothing to offend the Prohibitionists, while in Maine their support of the amendment to the Constitution might have been expected to draw some back to their old party. If the Prohibitionists can gain strength under such circumstances, there is every reason to suppose that they will increase their poll much more largely in States where the Republicans used to bid for their support, but have now turned their backs upon them. One such State is Indiana, where in 1888 the Republican platform denounced the saloon and favored local-option legislation, whereas this year not a word is said on the subject; and another is Iowa, where four years ago the Republicans congratulated the people on having secured "the best prohibitory law in the United States," and declared that "no backward step will be taken on this question," while this year they have ignored the matter of prohibition entirely, although the Democrats are committed to a repeal of the law as soon as they get the power.

One of the most bitter opponents of ballot reform in the whole country has always been the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*. It is therefore no surprise to find it saying of the small Republican majorities in New England this month, that "the lightness of the vote is doubtless to a great extent attributable to the Australian ballot system, which has disfranchised more citizens of all parties than any other law that has ever been adopted in the politics of the country." But the *Commercial Gazette* is mistaken in saying that the Australian ballot system disfranchises "citizens of all parties." It is only the Republicans who suffer from it. In Vermont, for example, the Democrats polled 19,526 votes this year, against 19,527 four years ago; and the Prohibitionists 1,650 now, against 1,372 then—the only disfranchisement being of Republicans, who cast 48,522 ballots before the new voting system was adopted, and only 39,190 after that.

While so many Republican organs are calling for the repeal of Australian ballot laws on the ground that they hurt their party, it is a great satisfaction to find a prominent newspaper of the party which says that the new system is a good thing for the country, and that it must be sustained for that reason, even if Republicans do suffer from it. Such a newspaper is the Lewiston *Journal*, edited by Congressman Dingley. The *Journal* was a most earnest advocate of ballot reform when Boutelle's followers were trying to defeat it in the Maine Legislature, and it stands by it now that the Republican majority has sunk so low under it. Of the good effects of the system it says: "We have never seen so orderly and satisfactory elections in our cities as we had on Monday. The polling-places were at no time crowded, the ward heelers were out of business, there were no brawls, and everything passed off serenely, even in wards where heretofore it has been as much as a man's life was worth to get to the polls." As for the objection that so beneficent a change "hurts the party"—and it must be kept in mind that in Lewiston itself the Democratic plurality was increased from only 9 two years ago to 257 on Monday week—the *Journal* says:

> "He is not a good party man who is not first a patriot. A man who believes in his party so little that he is afraid the conscience of the voter will hurt his party, doesn't even believe intelligently in what he believes. It is not half so necessary in a free country that everybody should vote our ticket as it is that everybody should vote without an impertinent ward heeler at his heels."

The chief feature of the Massachusetts Republican State Convention appears to have been the adoption of a resolution declaring that the Republicans in the next Legislature, which is to elect a United States Senator, "should nominate in caucus." This was the work of Henry Cabot Lodge, the "scholar in politics," who is diligently seeking the nomination. In the old days the Republicans of Massachusetts used to pride themselves upon their freedom from caucus tyranny, but the man

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who objects to that sort of thing now is denounced as a Mugwump.

New Hampshire promises to have a most hotly contested election this fall. The Democrats are harmonious and enthusiastic under the leadership of Congressman McKinney, a vigorous and popular stump-speaker, as their candidate for Governor. On the other hand, there is much division among the Republicans. A bitter hostility exists between Chandler and Gallinger, the two Senators. The Portsmouth *Chronicle*, a Republican newspaper, openly bolts the nomination of ex-Senator Blair for Congress in one of the two districts. In the other, the *New Hampshire Republican* has "read out of the party" ex-Congressman Moore, editor of the Nashua *Telegraph*, because of "the repeated attacks of Mr. Moore upon the character and standing of Gen. Henry M. Baker, the nominee of the Republicans of the Second Congressional District," and a man who only secured the nomination by the corrupt use of his wealth. The Democrats are also greatly encouraged by the fact that the November election will be the first held under the Australian ballot law. Harrison's plurality in 1888 was only 2,272, and if the Republicans of New Hampshire lose only half as much from "a free ballot" as their brethren in Vermont and Maine claim to have suffered, the new voting system will of itself give the State to Cleveland this year.

The nomination of a man for an office in the face of his declaration that he will not accept the nomination, always implies a certain amount of discourtesy to the person so chosen. The New Jersey Democrats, in persisting in nominating Judge Werts for Governor last week, refused to accept his repeated declaration that he would not run for the office. But political conventions, in many notable instances, have in this way ignored individual wishes, assuming that the claims of the party on any of its members are higher than any man's inclinations. Judge Werts is an able man, whose name has been associated at Trenton with many important measures, notably the State Ballot-Reform Law. He was put forward to defeat the Hudson County candidate who was most openly antagonistic to Gov. Abbett and his allies, but he is not an Abbett man, and, having accepted the nomination, if he be elected (as he doubtless will be), there is every reason to believe that New Jersey will be rid of the dictation of the family bosses who have so long made Jerseymen blush for the good name of the State.

There is a marked contrast between the attitude of the Wisconsin Republicans on the school issue this year and that of their brethren in Illinois. In 1890 the Wisconsin Republicans sustained the Compulsory Education Law (better known as the Bennett Law) as "wise and humane," and declared themselves "opposed to its repeal." The same year the Illinois Republicans declared themselves "in favor of a compulsory education law." In both States the Republicans were beaten. This year the Wisconsin Republicans have nominated for Governor ex-Senator Spooner upon a platform which declares this issue settled by the election of two years ago, and denounces any further agitation of the subject. The Illinois Republicans have renominated Gov. Fifer, who was first elected four years ago, and there has been much curiosity as to the stand he would take. He has defined his position clearly and boldly in a speech delivered at Earlville, "in the heart of the Lutheran section of the State," where the opposition to the law is most pronounced. He declared himself unqualifiedly in favor of the law, and a summary of his speech proceeds: "He said he was the uncompromising friend of the free-school system; he was in favor of compulsory education; he was for the principles involved in compulsory education, whether he was elected or not; he had nothing to conceal or cover up; he would deceive no one on this or any other question; before he would do that, he would keep the company of his self-respect and go into private life."

The Republicans have been expecting "confirmation" of the Peck contribution to statistical literature in this year's report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor. The report is now published, and indicates that while, for the ten years from 1875 to 1885, the value of goods made and work done in the manufacturing establishments reporting their condition showed an average increase of 3½ per cent. a year, the increase for the McKinley period, the year 1891, was only 1.33 per cent. In some industries losses are reported; in others there have been gains. In considering all returns of manufactures for the last year it should be remembered that big crops and good prices have had a very stimulating effect. Had these returns covered a period of agricultural depression, the figures on the loss side would be much larger. But a protectionist always credits every gain in business to the blessed tariff, just as the *Tribune* a few weeks ago credited a decrease in the price of print cloths (which did not exist) to the beneficent operation of a higher McKinley duty, although that particular duty had been reduced.

We expect to see, from this time on, much circumspection on the part of the Republicans in referring to Peck. He has had immense popularity with them, and has received the endorsement of all their great authorities, including the President himself. At present, however, he is under arrest for a crime of which the penalty is imprisonment for five years, or a fine of $5,000, or both. He is charged with having burned public documents in his care. These documents were the originals upon which he professed to base his famous report. He had been very valorous and even truculent in professing to be willing to show his data to anybody who doubted the accuracy of his figures, but as soon as a serious attempt was made to get him to show the original returns, he began to fight the matter in the courts, and now, while his case is still pending, is arrested for having destroyed the documents which it was his sworn duty to preserve. He ought now to turn his hand to criminal statistics.

We doubt if there has ever been a time when the editors of trade journals were so outspoken on tariff evils in connection with the particular industries they represent. They frequently tell McKinley that his superior wisdom in levying taxes was pure folly, so far as the business they know most about is concerned, and that he has done only harm; and sometimes they address a searching word to favored manufacturers themselves. A striking instance of the latter form of speaking out in meeting is furnished by the *Iron Trade Review* in its issue of September 8. This is, of course, a high-tariff paper, but it talks about the subject of steel rails in a deplorable manner. It asks "the steel-rail manufacturers of the country" such ugly questions as this: "With Bessemer pig at $17 in April, 1885, and steel rails then selling at a profit at $26, why should steel rails now be $4 higher, with Bessemer pig $3 lower than in '85?" Then it resorts to such an odious comparison as the following: "Paying 12 per cent. *more* now for Bessemer pig than they did in April, 1885, British railmakers are selling their product at 14 per cent. *less* than in the month and year named. The rail-manufacturers of the United States, on the other hand, are getting their Bessemer pig 18 per cent. *lower* than in April, 1885, but are selling their rails for nearly 16 per cent. *more*." It goes on to say that "no one could have more interest than the friends of a protective tariff in having a stop put to manifest abuses of it." Concluding, the *Review*, which, be it noted, is published right under McKinley's nose, has this to say of the most "scientific" and "symmetrical" tariff ever put together:

> "The theory of the $13.44 duty was that steel rails called for double the protection given to pig-iron. Even on that basis, the extreme price of steel rails should not exceed $28; but it is very evident, from the decreasing ratio in England between Bessemer iron and steel rails, and the actual ratio in this country of 1.53 in 1885, that the doubling of the pig-iron duty is not called for. The rail-manufacturers might avert a summary reduction by doing the fair thing themselves."

The lessening volume of our agricultural exports requires an explanation from McKinley. The August returns show a

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diminution in exports of breadstuffs of $7,750,000, as compared with the same month last year. Moreover, the price of wheat averaged in August of this year only 84 cents a bushel, as against 106 in August, 1891. Now, McKinley has assured the farmers of the West that their great sales and high prices of last year were directly due to his benign methods of taxing money out of the foreigner's pockets and into theirs. But his law is still in force, and the question arises why it does not continue to perform its beneficent functions. We hope it will not be answered that better harvests in Europe have slackened the demand, for that would seem to imply that the McKinley Bill does not, as is claimed for it, override all natural laws, and would also call to mind the fact that last year there was an extraordinary European demand for our agricultural products. This would have fallen out to the profit of the Western farmer in any case.

The Chicago *Tribune* prints with comments the results of an investigation by the Chicago *Economist* into the cost of producing silver at the new mines of Creede, Colorado. The mines are called the Last Chance and the Amethyst. Since their opening last November, their combined product has been 2,000,000 ounces, or at the rate of 3,000,000 ounces for the first year. The writer puts their real capacity at 8,000,000 ounces per annum, a supply not hitherto included in our reports of silver production, and typical of Colorado silver-mining. Special investigation was made into the cost of working. The figures for the Last Chance are believed to be close to the real facts. This mine has already paid $750,000 in dividends since its opening, nine months ago. Calculating all expenses and outlays, including cost of boarding-houses, wagon-roads, etc., it is found that the average cost of the silver produced has been 24½ cents per ounce. This cost will be less when certain items of more or less permanent character have been written off. It is asserted that the running expenses of the Last Chance mine are but 5 or 6 per cent. of the income. The cost of production at the Amethyst mine cannot be so closely ascertained, but is estimated at 44 cents per ounce after allowing for all outlays.

The Last Chance Mine has been marketing at about 88 cents per ounce silver which it has cost the mine only 24½ cents per ounce to produce. Its owners are representative of silver-men who are clamoring for $1.29 per ounce even if all trade be demoralized in consequence. Even if we take the case of the Amethyst, we find that silver under unfavorable conditions is being mined for one-half the ruling market price. We have here a fresh illustration of the oft-stated cause for the decline in the price of silver. At the present price there is enormous profit in silver-mining. How can we, as reasonable men, expect a lessening in the production of silver under such conditions? And how can we also expect anything but a continuous decline in the market price of silver until that price approximates the cost of production in the more expensive mines? Could even the adoption of bimetallism stop it permanently? "There is no reason," concludes the *Tribune*, "why the people of the United States or the rest of the world should be compelled to pay ever so much more if they can obtain all the silver they want to use at the low figures mentioned. It would be just as absurd to demand that not a single bushel of wheat shall be marketed at less than $1.50 because some few men exceptionally placed cannot afford to raise it for less, while plenty of other farmers find a fair profit in selling below $1 per bushel."

The labor market is generally thought to be pretty well supplied in this country, but there is one department in which the demand seems never to be satisfied. This is domestic service, and the complaints of the difficulty of securing women for such work, no matter how high the wages offered, are as loud in the West as in the East. A new employment bureau was recently started in Omaha, Neb., by female members of the Knights of Labor, but the *World-Herald* characterizes it as "rather superfluous, for the reason that there seems to be no one who wants employment." It says that, all over the city, women who keep house are in want of servants, and it is in vain that they offer good wages and inducements of every other sort. It concludes that "there evidently are not enough women in need of bread and butter who are willing to enter domestic service to fill the places which are vacant. The employment agencies already in existence are in many cases obliged to tell applicants for help that it is beyond their power to supply them." This universal lack of supply of domestic servants, in a country where there are so many complaints that women have to work at "starvation wages," is one of the most extraordinary phenomena of the day.

Mayor Grant's request to the President, in behalf of the city government, to exercise all the authority which he possesses "to prevent further immigration to this country until all fear of the introduction of cholera shall have disappeared," is likely to serve a useful purpose, whatever response the President may make to it. It will stimulate discussion of the question, and thus bring us nearer to the adoption of some remedy for future emergencies. There is no doubt that the stopping of immigration would remove all danger of the introduction of cholera to this country whenever it breaks out in Europe, for all medical authorities are agreed with Dr. Shakespeare of Philadelphia that "the only source of danger of cholera finding a foothold, when inspection is properly performed at quarantine, lies in its introduction by the emigrant classes." It may be that an international agreement could be made by which all migration should be arrested as soon as cholera made its appearance as an epidemic in any part of the world; but a notice on the part of our Government that no immigrants would be allowed to land would accomplish the same purpose.

Considerable tension has developed in the relations of Chili and Peru, growing out of a protocol recently signed by the Government of the former country and the French Minister in Santiago. Under the terms of the treaty of peace which closed the war between Chili and Peru in 1883, Chili was to take possession for ten years of the two guano-producing provinces of Peru, Tacna and Arica; at the end of that period the final ownership of the territory was to be determined by the vote of its inhabitants, and the country obtaining it was to pay the other $10,000,000. In the meantime Chili was to take charge of the exports of guano, reserving for herself one-half of the resulting profits and depositing the rest in the Bank of England for the benefit of creditors of Peru, principally French, whose loans had been secured by liens upon the guano product. Under this agreement there has been deposited in the Bank of England something like $2,700,000, while the share falling to the Chilians has been invested in 4½ per cent. national bonds.

Now the protocol agreed upon between the French Minister and Chili directs a pro-rata distribution among the creditors of the $2,700,000, and provides further that 80 per cent. of the amount received from the guano by Chili and invested in national bonds be likewise turned over to the French holders of Peruvian securities. This is to be taken by the French creditors as a complete discharge of all their claims against Chili growing out of the Peruvian war, and, it is alleged, by a secret article France in addition undertakes to maintain the preponderance of Chili on the Pacific. It is doubtless this last provision which is the main source of Peru's irritation, as it would bring to naught her reported alliances with Brazil and the Argentine Republic. But against even the open clauses of the protocol she has lodged a vigorous protest, maintaining that many of the French claims admitted into it were fraudulent, and that, in any case, their validity should have been passed upon by a Peruvian tribunal. The controversy, which threatens to become embittered, is particularly unfortunate in coming within a year of the time when the plébiscite must be resorted to to determine the possession of Tacna and Arica.

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PARTY VALUE OF A SECRET BALLOT.

THE admission of Republican leaders and journals that wherever the Australian ballot system has been put in operation in this country "it has worked against the Republican party," is one which they will be wise not to "dismiss with a smile," for the fact has a very ominous significance for them. Of course they do not believe for a moment their own explanations of the falling off of their vote in Vermont and Maine at the recent elections. They know that there is something else than "sensitiveness" and "timidity" at work in their party when its vote falls off heavily and the Democratic vote remains unchanged. It is merely stress of weather which forces them to take the position that, while all except one of the Democratic voters in Vermont were able to deposit their ballots under the new system, over nine thousand Republican voters were either too illiterate or too indifferent to do so.

The true explanation of the case is plain enough. No intelligent person thinks it a fact that the entire Democratic vote deposited in Vermont was cast by men who had hitherto voted only with that party. There had been no active Democratic campaign, and no especial effort made to bring the Democratic voters to the polls. There was no hope of the Democrats carrying the State, as they were the same forlorn minority that they have always been. If it be reasonable to say that Republican voters stayed at home because their party was sure of a majority anyway, it is none the less reasonable to say that Democratic voters stayed away because they had no hope of success. If the new ballot system drove away nine thousand Republicans, it must also have driven away many Democrats. How could the full Democratic vote be maintained, then? Simply by having some Republicans change their votes to that side.

That there were changes of this kind in both Vermont and Maine no person capable of forming an intelligent opinion on the subject will question. It was said by the Philadelphia *Press* recently that there "is no use of disguising the fact that the Republican vote, in New York State particularly, has fallen off greatly in the localities where the party was especially strong, since the new ballot law went into effect." Here is the same excuse of falling off on the Republican side alone. What happened in this State is precisely what happened in Vermont and Maine, namely, that many Republican voters went over to the Democratic side, being helped in doing so by the shield of a secret ballot. For the first time they could vote without any one knowing the way in which they voted. In rural communities any man, under the old system, was able to see how his neighbor voted, and no man could change his party affiliations without subjecting himself to a great deal of annoyance and, sometimes, persecution. Under the secret ballot he can make the change and say nothing about it, and nobody will be a bit the wiser.

So, too, with the employee, who, under the old system, was kept close watch of by his employer and compelled to vote in the latter's interest. He can vote as he pleases now with no fear of consequences. Then there is the bribed voter. He cannot be followed to the polls to see whether or not he earns his money, and the consequence is that he is no longer bribed. Neither can the local leader or boss follow his men to the polls to see if they vote in obedience to orders. All these effects of a secret ballot were predicted by the advocates of the new system and were the chief reasons advanced for its adoption. If the Republican party is found to be the chief sufferer, it is simply because it has been the party which has indulged most in the abuses which have been abolished.

We do not see how the Republicans can hope for a more friendly working of the system in other States than they have experienced in New England and New York. It has worked very badly for them in Indiana in one State election, and there is little reason to think it will work any better for them in the national election. Certainly the Dudley "blocks-of-five" method will not be practicable under it, for the voters must go to the polls singly and must mark their ballots in secret. In every manufacturing centre in thirty-five States the employees of protected manufacturers will deposit their ballots free from all espionage and intimidation, and this is certain to "work against the Republican party." Everywhere throughout thirty-five States bribery will be impracticable, because it will be impossible to see if the bad bargain is kept.

But, above all, we believe that the most deadly effect which the new system will have upon the Republican cause will be due to the secrecy which it will throw around regular party voters who for a long time have wished to register a protest against the high-tariff abomination, but have been too timid to do it with the eyes of their party associates upon them. They can prepare their ballots in secret now and vote them in secret, and they will hasten to improve the opportunity. We believe that it is to such voters that the Republican losses in Vermont and Maine and New York are due, and that there will be similar losses revealed in all other parts of the country when the November returns come to hand.

DR. JENKINS AND THE OTHER DOCTORS.

CURIOUSLY enough, whenever we are threatened with cholera, courage suddenly loses its place among the social virtues. The cowards come out of their concealment and unblushingly avow that, although brave as lions in the presence of other dangers, in the presence of cholera they are willing to commit or connive at any species of atrocity, not simply to avoid cholera, but to avoid even a remote chance of catching it. For the chance of catching it to which a cleanly, well-fed, careful man is exposed in any modern city is almost infinitesimally small. Even in Hamburg, during the last few weeks, we could probably count on our fingers the number of such persons who have fallen victims to it. If cholera were raging in New York to-day, such persons would probably be in far less danger from it than they are from typhoid fever every fall, or pneumonia every winter. The doctors know little more about its transmission, apparently, than that *one* mode of transmission is direct contact. There may be other modes, as we see from the way it seems to drop down into streets and houses far removed from any known source of contagion. But one thing is certain, and that is that well-fed, cleanly people, whose nerves are not shaken by its approach, and whose minds are not occupied with it, seldom if ever catch it. This, which has been long known, has almost received scientific demonstration from the experiments which Dr. Jenkins has been making, as on a *corpus vile*, on the cabin passengers of the *Normannia*, *Rugia*, *Wyoming*, and other ships in the lower bay—experiments which no physician would have dared to make in any hospital in the world, and which nothing but the cowardice of the intelligent and well-to-do class in New York would have permitted for one hour.

For be it remarked, in the first place, that these performances of Dr. Jenkins have been and are clearly illegal. The statute from which he derives his authority (chap. 486 of the Laws of the 115th Session, passed May 5, 1892, section 26), prescribes:

> "That, on the arrival of an infected vessel, all well persons on board shall have their freedom as soon as possible consistently with the regulations prescribed by, or pursuant to, the present law. All sick persons shall be *immediately* transferred to the hospital set apart for their reception, and the vessel unladen, purified, and admitted to pratique as soon as possible. Persons sick with different diseases shall be kept separately."

Section 4 of the same statute says that the Quarantine Commissioners

> "may make such rules and regulations, *not inconsistent with law*, as they shall deem necessary for the care and protection of each portion of the quarantine establishment, for the government of employees therein, for the regulation and conduct of all quarantinable persons, and for the prevention of communication or intercourse with any quarantinable vessel. *Well persons shall not be detained unnecessarily*, and in cases of exigency all means conducive to the protection of the public health shall be adopted."

Now, the Health Officer, acting under this statute, has in the case of the *Normannia* held 500 well persons in confinement for a fortnight on board ship, and in the case of the *Rugia* 80 well persons for more than two weeks, in close contact with disease, apparently for the purpose of seeing whether, under these most unwholesome conditions, they would not catch cholera. Was this "conducive to the public health"? Under what regulation

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"not inconsistent with the law" was it done and is it being done now?

These are important questions, but there is a more important question still: Why did and do the bar, the press, the doctors, and the clergy stand by and see it done? Where are the "patriots" who wanted to go to war with Chili because two or three drunken sailors were killed in a street fight? Is there a man among us who would consent to save this city from a foreign invader by giving up 600 innocent women and children and infirm to be tortured by him? Who among us would agree to arrest such an invader by poisoning wells, or killing or starving prisoners, or sending infected clothing to his camp? And what is there in the danger of cholera to convert us into helpless cravens, ready to resort to or connive at any means, however cruel, or illegal, or unscientific, in order to avoid it—nay, even to abjure the usages of civilized warfare in our treatment of our own countrymen at our own gates? *All* means of escape from danger are not open to civilized Christian communities. The measures taken for this end must be plainly necessary; they must be humane; they must be remedial; and they must be carried out by competent sanitarians. The Health Officer at the port of New York ought not only to stand high among doctors, but to have enough administrative talent to command a division in time of war or manage a great railroad.

Nor is this the worst. We have handed and are handing these unhappy people over to a man who not only has not the moral or intellectual, but has not the legal qualification for his place. Of his capacity as an administrator we need not speak after the events of the last ten days. The statute we have already quoted, art. 2, sec. 12, wisely provides that the Health Officer of the Port of New York

> "shall be a doctor of medicine of good standing of at least ten years' experience in the practice of his profession, and *practically familiar with quarantinable diseases.*"

Quarantinable diseases are yellow fever, cholera, typhus and ship fever, smallpox, scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles, and relapsing fever, or any disease of an "infectious or pestilential nature." Now, we challenge Dr. Jenkins and his supporters to say where or when he ever practised his profession even for two years, and where and when he ever treated a case of quarantinable disease. Dr. Jenkins was graduated from the Medical Department of the University of the City of New York in 1882, at the age of twenty-six. He spent the two years while at this college, as young doctors usually spend them, we presume, in some kind of dispensary practice, and in the year of his graduation became a deputy coroner or post-mortem doctor, which place he filled till appointed, in January of this year, Health Officer of the Port of New York, at a salary of $12,500!

It is impossible, we are sorry to say, to acquit the doctors of the city of the largest share of responsibility for this great national scandal. The press, it is true, started the panic which developed the selfishness and cowardice that gave Jenkins his chance. But what medical man has said one word *publicly* to quell it, to restore the reign of reason and humanity, or to make the world acquainted with the incompetency of the man on whom the city was relying to "keep out the cholera"? What other body could have spoken with the same authority? How was it that they, knowing well that this barbarous and illegal quarantine which Jenkins was enforcing had been abandoned as useless and cruel by other civilized nations, never said so *openly*, never called attention to the immunity of England from cholera, though ten times more exposed than we are, without other quarantine than two days' watching of the well in their own homes, and the treatment of the sick in the hospital, without inflicting any suffering or indignity on any human being? We have received the following explanation from a leading member of the profession in a private letter, but we must honestly say that it does not explain the failure of the profession to speak out. He says:

> "Politics, incompetency, and inhumanity have played a sad part in your lives during the past few weeks. That the *Normannia's* passengers have escaped in spite of the odds against them may well be a subject of national thanksgiving. The medical profession were bound hand and foot, so far as practical usefulness was concerned, until Dr. Jenkins accepted the assistance of the Advisory Board, through the pressure brought upon him by the Chamber of Commerce and public opinion. I have heard frequently through colleagues during the past fortnight of the condition of affairs at Quarantine, which they denounce in no uncertain terms, but which they were powerless to change. The general medical opinion is that there is not a single redeeming feature in Jenkins's case. To know that an office which demands equally an administrative ability of the highest order and technical knowledge can be bestowed on one lamentably deficient in both, is a sad reflection upon the power of politics for evil, and the powerlessness of public and professional opinion for good, in questions even affecting the health and life of a nation."

This is all true, but, if true, why was the Chamber of Commerce meeting on Friday week allowed, without a word of protest, to "put on record its hearty appreciation of the energetic action of the Health Department of the city of New York"; and why was the meeting of citizens on the evening of Thursday week, which contained at least two eminent physicians, allowed to "recognize the successful efforts put forth by Dr. Jenkins as Health Officer of this port to keep the cholera out of the city of New York"—the said Jenkins being at that time actually engaged in the perpetration of an atrocious and illegal attack on the public health in the lower bay, by the deliberate and protracted exposure to infection of some 600 or 700 men, women, and children? Do we not find in these things some excuse for the cowardly and rabid exploits of the Long Island clam-diggers?

PROTECTION IN CANADA.

THE Department of Agriculture of the Dominion of Canada has recently published a bulletin showing the number of industrial establishments in the Dominion, the number of persons employed therein, and the wages paid these employees now as compared with the wages paid in 1881. When this bulletin appeared, we examined it with some care, but reached the conclusion that its results, so far as comparative wages were concerned, were unworthy of confidence. Our conclusion was based upon the fact that the census of 1881 furnished no information as to the number of days during which the establishments reporting were at work. The census of 1891 showed that of 75,768 establishments 48,748 had been running full time during the year ending April, 1891, 12,981 half time, and 14,039 quarter time. It is obvious that when aggregate wages for the year are given, the average wages per diem depend greatly upon the number of days worked. The only possible way, therefore, of comparing the average wages of 1891 with those of 1881 was to assume that the number of days worked was the same in both years. This was the method employed by the Department of Agriculture, and while it may have been the only method available it is not scientific. It may lead to correct results, but it can do so only by chance. The inference, therefore, that the average wages paid in Canada are from 16 to 18 per cent. higher than those paid ten years ago, we were unable to regard as justified by the evidence, although we do not regard it as improbable.

But this bulletin has now become invested with an extrinsic interest, owing to the fact that the New York *Tribune*, in its desperate clutching at straws, and perhaps in its anxiety to distract attention from Commissioner Peck's blunders, has seized upon it as a possible argument for the McKinley Law. It must be confessed that its argument is extremely ingenious; so much so that it may be doubted if it would have suggested itself to the ordinary protectionist. He would have been apt to say, on seeing this bulletin, "See what protection has done for Canada!" without thinking of the meagre advance in wages in some unprotected industries in this country, and the decline in protected industries, disclosed by the Senate's Committee on Finance. The *Tribune* has been more astute, and boldly takes the position that the advance in wages in Canada has been due to protection in the United States. It concedes, apparently, that if they had had the genuine American non-exportable article of protection in Canada, the result might have been different; but, owing to the fact that the Canadians have tried to get along with a cheap and inferior substitute, a "hesitating and partial protection," their wages have been lower than ours. Wages being higher here, the pauper laborers of Cana-

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da have flocked hither, and the diminution of the supply of labor there has had the natural effect of raising wages.

The argument of the *Tribune*, however, lacks completeness. There are inferences to be drawn from it about which the *Tribune* is silent, but which the laboring-men of this country will not overlook. The most obvious of these inferences is, that, since a diminution of the number of laborers in Canada has caused the rate of wages there to rise, the increase in the number of laborers here caused by the Canadian emigration must have caused wages here to fall, or at least not to rise to the same extent as they would have risen but for this emigration. It is therefore an undeniable consequence of American protection that, by stimulating the importation of cheap foreign labor, it has injuriously affected the condition of American labor. There is nothing new about this proposition, but it is well that it should be publicly confessed as the real doctrine of the Republican party.

As if by way of emphasizing this confession, the *Tribune* has recently published several letters from Canada which contain statements to the effect that there are over a million French-Canadian emigrants in the United States; the emigration amounting to 40,000 or 50,000 this year—say 4 per cent. of the population of the province of Quebec. This emigration, it is added, has been enormously stimulated by the McKinley Act. Without "American protection" these people would have for the most part remained at home, but the McKinley Act is driving them into this country in hordes. It is true that some of them, like the heathen Chinese, return, carrying their savings with them, and that "an enormous amount of money is sent by French-Canadians in the States to their friends in Canada." But this does not discourage the *Tribune's* correspondent, who cheerfully assures the laboring people of America that the Canadians who are here are going to stay, that the exodus will greatly increase, and that these people are distinguished by their willingness to accept low wages. Moreover, he adds, it is the most prolific people in the world, and he cites the case of ten couples in a single community of 1,200 inhabitants who rejoice in descendants numbering 527 souls. According to the view of the *Tribune*, Quebec is to become, under the beneficent policy of McKinley, a mere breeding-ground for laborers who are to hasten across the frontier as soon as they are able, and enter into competition with American citizens. Democratic campaign orators will do well to impress this upon their audiences.

No one who has visited the interior of Quebec can have failed to be charmed with the many virtues of the people, and we are far from saying that their emigration to this country in moderate numbers is undesirable. But their standard of living is undeniably low, they are ignorant, superstitious, and, where there is an admixture of Indian blood, often dangerously vicious. We can assimilate them if they do not come in masses, but if the McKinley Act has the effect attributed to it by the *Tribune*—and we are inclined to believe the statement to a certain extent in spite of its authorship—of forcing the French-Canadians off their farms and compelling them to crowd into New England, it had better be repealed. The policy of "building up our industries" by imposing a tax upon all Americans for the benefit of any foreigner who chooses to emigrate here with all his "pauper laborers," bringing his machinery with him, is one that fills the *Tribune's* heart with joy and exultation. It has little to recommend it, either to the American manufacturers or to the American laborers, who find foreign competition more tolerable on the other side of the ocean than at their own thresholds. Not thus is either the American manufacturer or the American home to be protected.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

No little attention has been called, during the past year, to the University of Chicago. The rapid enrolment in America and Europe of a large staff of professors, many of whom have been attracted by larger salaries from established institutions of the highest character; the number and variety of courses announced and projected; and, above all, a certain audacity of initiative and dash in execution, which may be unacademic but are none the less typically American—all these things have excited interest, and have also (we say it without the slightest intention of criticism) secured for the enterprise that liberal advertisement without which nothing appears to "go" in our day and country. But in the multitude of press notices too little heed has been taken of the innovations of real interest, and the educational experiments of indubitable value, that are outlined in the preliminary circulars of the University. We base our comments on the *Quarterly Calendar* for June, the issue announced for September not having reached us; but it is unlikely that any of the principal features of what is clearly a carefully considered scheme will be modified before the University opens in October.

Any criticism must necessarily be prefaced by a statement of the general plan of organization, which is in some respects a novel one, and an explanation of the terminology employed, which is even more novel. In ordinary phraseology, the University may be said to consist of a graduate department and a college proper. There is also a divinity school, and other professional schools are projected; and there is a separate department of "university extension"; but these call for no especial comment. In the college proper there are three parallel courses of study, leading respectively to the degrees of A.B., Ph.B., and B.S. These several courses, at Chicago, are termed "colleges" of "liberal arts," of "literature," and of "science." There is also a cross-line of cleavage between the sophomore and junior years of each of these colleges; the two lower years being termed the "academic college" and the two higher years the "university college." We have thus six "colleges," three "academic" and three "university"; and two more are projected, with the view of creating a four years' course in "practical arts." In the general construction of the three parallel courses which are to be thrown open in October, there is little that is new. It is the familiar "group system." To obtain the degree of A.B., the student must devote more than half of his freshman and sophomore years to Greek, Latin, and mathematics, and at least one-third of his junior and senior years to mathematics, languages, and the political and social sciences. For the degree of Ph.B. an increased amount of work is required in the modern languages and in history, with less mathematics and no Greek. For the degree of B.S. an equivalent for Greek is found in the modern languages and natural science. All these courses contain the same amount of obligatory Latin. In the entrance requirements we find a real innovation—anticipated in principle, it is true, at Harvard, but carried through more logically at Chicago. There are no less than six groups of subjects, and in three of these there is no Greek. Substitutes are found in the modern languages and the natural sciences, in varying proportions. Latin, however, is required in all cases. All this, with one exception, is in accordance with the educational tendencies of the day. The exception is the multiplication of baccalaureate degrees. We cannot see why each of these "colleges" should not award the degree of A.B. Each curriculum contains a fair amount of classics, modern languages (including, of course, English), history and political science, mathematics, and natural science. Each, therefore, affords the essential elements of a liberal education. We do not perceive why those students who have devoted a greater amount of time to natural or political science and to the modern languages and literatures should be put off with a B.S. or a Ph.B.—degrees which are commonly regarded as inferior.

An especially interesting innovation is to be found in the manner in which the course chosen by each student is to be accomplished, as regards the arrangement of subjects and hours. Each student is held to attend fifteen hours of class-room work per week, and this time is to be devoted to only two or three subjects at once. The normal arrangement restricts him to two subjects at a time, one of ten and one of five hours. The unit of measurement, called a "major," is a ten-hour course running through six weeks. A five-hour course running the same length of time is a "minor," and this, of course, is reckoned as half a unit. Under this system the "academic" students, *i.e.*, the freshmen and sophomores, work off their required subjects two at a time. A candidate for A.B. might devote himself, as a freshman, to Greek, Latin, and English exclusively, and complete in that year all that is required in these departments during the first two years. In his second year he would then confine himself to mathematics, natural science, French and German, and history. Within each year the concentration of subjects would go still further: all the required Greek, for example, could be completed in a portion of one academic year. This is an interesting reaction against the scattering system now in vogue. In many of our colleges the time of the student is frittered away in one hour and two-hour courses, and his attention distracted by the pursuit of half-a-dozen different subjects at once. But we think that the reaction has been carried too far. If it is true, as many teachers complain, that a course of one or two hours a week is almost useless, it seems to us, on the other hand, that a course of ten hours a week is strikingly near a "cram," and

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that its results must be as evanescent as those of other "crams." If a boy of eighteen be thus "railroaded" through a portion of the 'Odyssey' in six weeks, what residual impression can there be in his mind when he is twenty-eight?

This system becomes even more questionable when it is applied to juniors, seniors, and graduates. The principle of concentration, indeed, becomes more justifiable; for with increasing maturity the student may specialize with increasing profit. But the majors, or ten-hour courses, are open to criticism on other grounds. It is clearly recognized by the Chicago authorities that the method of instruction in the "university colleges" and the "graduate school" should be different from that followed in the "academic colleges." Instead of recitations there are to be lectures. In many of the ten-hour courses the lectures are to be "informal," and there are to be "discussions." The students are to be held to outside reading, and are to prepare essays on special points. It is obvious that courses of this character are what the Germans call "Seminaria"; and the fact that in the Chicago plan they are called "courses," while other similar courses are called "seminaries," does not establish any real difference. Fifteen hours a week of this sort of work, we think, is quite too much to demand of a university student. If he is really to be trained in investigation, he needs more time in the library and less in the class-room. Moreover, the experience of the German and of the leading American universities has demonstrated that a capable instructor does not need to meet seminary students more than once a week for a couple of hours in order to learn what they are doing and direct them in what they are to do. If the students have more time than this for "discussion," their remarks will be of a very speculative and a-priori character, and the University seminary will degenerate into a sophomoric debating society. We venture to predict, therefore, that in courses of this sort the "informal lectures" of the instructor will assume great prominence; that they will practically become lecture courses.

Viewed from this standpoint, they are still too heavy. There are few subjects in which the student can profitably listen to ten or even eight lectures a week. He can scarcely assimilate what is given him, and he certainly cannot supplement the lectures by a proper amount of outside reading. There is, we concede, a great difference in the amount of time that can be advantageously employed in the class-room in different subjects. In some of the German universities there are law courses of twelve hours a week in a single subject (Pandects), and we have no doubt that the same amount of time could be used to still greater advantage in an American law school in discussing cases on the Harvard plan. It may be that President Harper can make good use of ten hours a week in exercises on Genesis i-viii in the Hebrew, and it is not unlikely that the same amount of time can be improved in reading the "inscriptions of the Achæmenian Kings" in the Old Persian; but we doubt whether Prof. Starr will get as good results from his "major" in general ethnology as he would obtain by giving a "double minor," *i. e.*, a course half as heavy and running twice as many weeks. And we are quite sure that the historical professor who is to rush advanced students through the Renaissance, the Protestant Revolution, the Thirty Years' War, and the Age of Louis XIV. in twenty-four weeks, will obtain very unsatisfactory results indeed. It is significant that this professor has not been found, or at least had not been found up till June. It is significant that the professors who have been appointed and who have (presumably) fixed their own courses, offer to the university students minors only in philosophy, in political economy, in history, and (with the one exception above noted) in social science and anthropology. In these departments we find 111 courses announced or projected, of which only seven are to be majors, and for six of these majors the professor is not yet found. In these departments, accordingly, the system is obviously breaking down before it is fairly initiated. It is a step in the right direction that the university majors and minors may, under the existing regulations, be cut down from ten and five to eight and four hours. It would be still better to reduce them to six and three hours respectively.

But there is a further objection to the whole system. The designation of certain courses as major and of certain others as minor, whether it proceeds from the University authorities or from the several professors, is an arbitrary designation. It is the first principle of true university work that one subject is as important as another, and it is a necessary corollary of this principle that the university student should be permitted to determine for himself on what lines he will do his chief work, *i. e.*, that he should make his own major. In the Eastern universities, *e. g.*, at Columbia and Johns Hopkins, this is fully recognized and provided for. Any subject that is taught may be selected as a major subject for the degrees of A.M. and Ph.D.; and any subject may be taken, at the pleasure of the student, either as a major or as a minor. The student who takes a subject as his major is required to do more work, and particularly more original work. Under this system, of course, the crude measurement of the student's work by hours of attendance in the lecture-room is discarded. It seems to us that the Chicago authorities have made a mistake in carrying this system of measurement into the university years. The mistake is the more serious because it is the announced purpose of the University to devote its chief attention to its more advanced instruction, and as soon as possible to throw off its "academic" work upon "affiliated" institutions.

Some final reflections, suggested by the Chicago *Calendar*, touch the government of the University. It is, we think, one of the greatest errors of American university organization that so much power is exercised by the trustees and by the president, and so little by the corps of professors. The professors really make the university, and they ought to determine its educational policy. At Chicago it seems to us that far too much has been settled in advance by the president and trustees without the possibility of consultation with the faculties. The circumstances, of course, are exceptional; the University had to be organized in some fashion before there could be any faculties to consult. But was it necessary to elaborate the educational plan in such detail? And is the dictatorship of the president, necessary as it may be in such a formative period, to be prolonged after the University is fairly in operation, or is a constitutional era to be inaugurated?

The *Calendar* informs us that, under the trustees and in addition to the president, the deans, etc., there are to be two organs of university government. The "University Council" consists of deans and other administrative officials. It is clearly an administrative body, pure and simple. But the "University Senate" is composed of professors, and this body is to "discuss *and decide* matters relating to the educational work of the University." This seems satisfactory as regards the powers of the Senate. But its composition is open to criticism. It consists only of "Heads of Departments of Instruction." This excludes all junior professors, and makes the body ultra-conservative. In Columbia, which has not commonly been regarded as a radical institution, the central organ of the professors, the University Council, consists of delegates from the several faculties; and in the election of these delegates the junior and assistant professors have the same voice as their seniors. It is certainly surprising to discover that a more conservative, not to say reactionary, policy has been adopted at Chicago.

OUTLETS TO THE GREAT LAKES.

North Bay, Ont., September 9, 1892.

I have just discovered a link in the geological history of the Great Lakes which cannot fail to interest the general public as much as it will the scientific world. As frequently happens, however, the discovery is not unexpected, but has been made in following out lines of inquiry suggested by earlier discoveries of many investigators.

Now that the railroads have completed so many surveys of the territory surrounding the Great Lakes which lie along the frontier between Canada and the United States, we are able to engage in special explorations of the region under peculiar advantages, and to forecast results in a way that would have been impossible a few years ago. Accurate topographical surveys of the region bring impressively to light the fact that the direction which the vast volume of waters in the upper four of our Great Lakes should take, depends upon a very slight accident of nature. Lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan are substantially on the same level—a little less than 600 feet above the sea. Lake Superior is but thirty feet higher, and flows into them. A moment's inspection of any map will show that the watershed around these lakes is surprisingly narrow. The tributaries of the Mississippi rise within a few miles of Lake Erie, and penetrate almost to the limits of the city of Chicago, while the Mattawan, one of the tributaries of the Ottawa, reaches to within three miles of Lake Nipissing, which is but little above Lake Huron and tributary to it. Thus it appears that these lakes occupy a saucer-shaped general depression near the height of the tableland in the centre of the continent, and that a slight tilting of the edges of the plateau one way or another would determine the direction of overflow. At present the status of the plateau is such that the water runs over the precipice at Niagara. But an elevation of less than fifty feet at Niagara, or a depression of an equal amount at Chicago, would turn the stream into the Mississippi through the Illinois River. The fact which has been brought clearly to light by recent surveys is that a subsidence amounting to only a trifle more than a hundred feet would turn the current from Lake Huron through Lake Nipissing into the Mattawan and thence into the Ottawa. The discovery referred to in the opening sentence is of the fact that this was probably for a considerable period the actual outlet, and one which then robbed Niagara of the most of its glory.

The surmises leading to this discovery are connected with the history of the glacial period. It now seems clear that the glacial

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period was preceded, and perhaps brought on, by an extensive elevation (probably not over 3,000 feet) of the land south and east of James Bay. During this period of elevation nearly all the rivers of the Atlantic Basin excavated deep gorges and cañons, like those of the Saguenay and the Hudson, which then extended a hundred miles or more further out than at present over a plateau which is now covered with comparatively shallow water. But the culmination of the great ice age was marked by a depression of the glaciated area, which increased in amount towards the centre of ice-accumulation. The subsidence, which was 230 feet on the south shore of Maine and about the same east of Lake Ontario, was 500 feet at Montreal, and in the far North 1,000 feet or more. This is shown by deposits of sea shells overlying the glacial deposits in these regions.

Reasoning from this differential northerly subsidence, it was surmised by Mr. Gilbert of the United States Geological Survey some years ago, that it was probably sufficient to change the attitude of the rim of the Great Lakes, so that their outlet would be turned into the Ottawa. The correctness of this surmise and the actual course of the early outlet are fully established in my own mind by the investigations of the last few days. In pursuing them it has been intensely exciting to see with one's own eyes direct evidence that the engineers of the Canadian Pacific Railroad, when following the trail of Champlain, the earliest white explorer of this region, were not only paying tribute to the skill of the Indians in selecting the lowest passes from one valley to another, but were also unsuspectingly utilizing one of the most remarkable of nature's highways.

In the year 1613 Champlain worked his way up the Ottawa from Montreal about 200 miles to the site of Fort Coulonge, the gathering-place at that time of the Ottawa Indians. Here he heard of the Nipissing and Huron Indians, and established trading connections with them. Two years later, or in 1615, the great explorer set out again in the same direction, following close upon the footsteps of Father Le Caron, a Catholic missionary who had already started to preach the Gospel to the Hurons. Passing the limits of his former expedition, Champlain reached the mouth of the Mattawan River, about 300 miles above Montreal, and, turning up that stream along the trail of the Hurons, he found himself conducted through various long and narrow lakes (one of which still bears his name), separated by short portages, to the shore of Lake Nipissing, where lately there has sprung up the bustling railroad town of North Bay. In early post-glacial times, there can be little doubt, this part of his route, from the mouth of the Mattawan to Lake Nipissing, was occupied by a stream which is now represented in its mission by the Niagara. The evidences of this can be briefly stated and easily understood.

Lake Nipissing is scarcely seventy feet above Lake Huron, emptying into it through French River. The western extremity of Trout Lake, the source of the Mattawan, is less than three miles from North Bay on Lake Nipissing, and is separated from it by a wide swampy channel, which is only about twenty-five feet above the level of either lake. This portion of the channel we have explored and determined its capacity for conducting the waters of the Great Lakes over into the present watershed of the Ottawa when called upon to do so, and there is no other passage so low between the upper end of Lake Erie and Hudson Bay.

On looking for more positive evidence, we find it in a clearly defined shore-line of well-rounded pebbles extending upon the north side of the channel from one lake to the other, and at a uniform height of about fifty feet above the connecting channel. This shore-line is as well defined as that on the banks of the Niagara River just west of the present cataract. Such a deposit could not have been formed along this connecting depression except by a stream of vast size passing from Lake Nipissing into the Mattawan.

It is, however, on going down to the junction of this outlet with the Ottawa that the most positive and striking evidence is seen. For ten miles above the junction, signs of the old river terraces are more or less visible high above the present stream; but at the junction there is an accumulation of river deposits unparalleled, probably, by anything else in the world. The lower angle of the junction between the two streams is filled to a height of eighty feet or more above the present water level with a boulder bed about half a mile in width and extending up the Mattawan for nearly a mile, where it shades off into finer material. On the upper angle the Mattawan is bordered by a terrace equally high, but consisting for the most part of fine gravel. These boulders in the lower angle are well rounded and many of them of enormous size. Thousands of them are several feet in diameter, while some which we measured were thirty feet in diameter and were resting on loose material. The trough of the Ottawa is here 500 or 600 feet below the general level of the country, and this accumulation is clearly a terrace and not a simple glacial moraine, for it is level-topped and has every characteristic of the deltas which are built up where a tributary of rapid descent joins a large valley. It is peculiar only for its enormous amount and for the enormous size of its constituent material. That it is a delta brought down by the Mattawan and not by the Ottawa is shown by the fact that it has dammed the latter stream, producing in it deep water above and rapids below. This action of tributary streams is finely illustrated in Gen. Warren's report upon the characteristics of the Upper Mississippi River, from which it appears that in this stream there is shallow water below the mouth of every considerable tributary and deep water above. The explanation is that the rapid-flowing tributary brings into the slower-moving current of the main stream coarser material than it can handle, and so a bar is pushed out completely across the larger and broader channel. This is just what has been done by the Mattawan at its junction with the Ottawa; and the material of both the delta and the bar is such as only a stream like Niagara, rushing down a declivity of several feet to the mile, could transport. In this case, however, it is not probable that the larger boulders were transported far by the river. They had first been brought into the lower part of the valley of the Mattawan by the ice movement, which, all over this region, is from the northeast.

The scenes thus brought to the mind's eye by these significant phenomena contrast strangely with those which have greeted our senses during the past weeks of exploration. Then it was the roaring rapids of Niagara, crowded into still narrower compass, and rushing through a treeless and tenantless waste which the long winter of the glacial period had just released from its relentless grasp. Now, in their impression upon the senses, the noises of the destructive saw-mill and of the sluggish freight-train alternate with the splash of the voyageur as he pushes us along in his birch-bark canoe through the still water of narrow lakes bordered by luxuriant forests from whose depths come the cheerful, but, to us of the south country, unseasonable, song of the spring bird and the chickadeedee. The romance of science, of history, and of vacation life are here united to perfection.

Since the scenes of the earlier time, many thousand years have rolled by, and meanwhile the northern country, which had been so much depressed beneath its load of glacial ice, has been slowly returning towards its former position. The current of the Detroit River has been reversed, and now we have Niagara, whose age is pretty well known. At the present rate of the recession of the falls, less than 10,000 years would be required to form the gorge above Queenstown. Of late this has been taken as a glacial chronometer. But this discovery of an earlier northern outlet for the Great Lakes will, as Mr. Gilbert some time ago surmised, considerably lengthen our calculations.

In conclusion, it is well to remark that summer tourists in this region can obtain much pleasure for themselves and confer a great favor upon the world by working out and publishing the details of this theory, now so well established, concerning the later geological history of the Great Lakes. Not only can they trace out more carefully the evidences of the actual existence of the outlet here described, but, by collecting facts concerning the height and extent of the terraces of clay and gravel surrounding the lakes, they may do much toward giving definiteness to our knowledge concerning these recent changes in level which have determined in so large degree the history of man upon this continent. One has but to pass the fleets of steamers now necessary to conduct the commerce of these inland seas, and to stand for a few hours beside the lock which admits a part of this commerce through the Sault Ste. Marie, to be overwhelmed with the significance of these providential waterways.

The commerce which even now passes into Lake Superior far exceeds that which seeks the Orient through the Suez Canal. As we passed that great portal into the largest of the lakes, a few days since, twenty great steamers were waiting their turn to enter the lock which should admit them to the broad waters above, and as many were waiting to descend with their burdens of ore and grain. In 1890 more than 10,000 vessels passed through this outlet, carrying more than 9,000,000 tons of cargo. Within a year another lock, 800 feet long, 100 feet wide, and 21 feet deep on the sills, will be completed. The future of the commerce passing in and out of these natural gateways to the interior can be estimated only by the growth of the whole country.

In the light of all these facts it certainly is somewhat startling to reflect how delicate has been the balancing of natural forces through long geological ages which has determined the location of our inland cities and the course of our inland commerce. First there was the late tertiary elevation of the continent, brought about by geodetic forces too obscure to admit of calculation. During this period the main characteristics of the larger valleys of the northern part of the continent were determined. Then followed the marvellous and apparently capricious accumulation of snow in which originated the majestic forces of the glacial period, which in their slow march southward to the Ohio River prepared and distributed the soil destined to furnish the seat of empire upon the continent. Bordered for many

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thousand years by icy walls which prohibited egress to the north, the drainage of all the northern part of the continent was from the Red River into the Minnesota, from Lake Michigan into the Illinois, and from Lake Erie into the Wabash—all reaching the Mississippi. Then there was for a while a change. When the Mohawk Valley was first cleared of ice, the drainage of the Lakes sought access to the ocean through the Hudson. At a later stage this drainage was directed through the Ottawa along the line above described. It was only after many thousand years that Buffalo and Cleveland and Chicago and Duluth could come into existence by virtue of their advantageous commercial situation. Considered from a geological point of view, the present conditions are but temporary. But, as human history goes, geological changes are so slow that, when once established, human effort can easily maintain the centres of trade and the lines of commerce upon these lakes where they are until the immense natural resources of the region shall be exhausted. After that, no matter if the deluge does come! G. Frederick Wright.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

Dublin, September 5, 1892.

For the first time in Irish history we have an English Government in office pledged to make an earnest effort to settle the Irish question—that is, to grant legislative independence to Ireland in all Irish matters and to arrange the relations between the two kingdoms on a just and equitable basis. The great change that has taken place during the last fifteen years is well illustrated by one incident: during the last month Michael Davitt, ex-convict, imprisoned over and over again for treasonable practices and speeches, went to Newcastle to support the reëlection of an Englishman as Irish Secretary; and so far as the result was due to any one man's influence and exertions, he was the chief instrument in securing John Morley's return.

The Irish Nationalists have, however, in my opinion, made a very great mistake in adhering, under present circumstances, to their resolution not to take any office until a satisfactory home-rule measure has been introduced. Their position may be consistent with their past declarations, but is utterly unreasonable. They profess confidence in the intentions of the Liberal party and are in open alliance with them. It is well known that three-fourths of the Irish officials are violently opposed to any home-rule measure; they belong by association, interests, and training to "the classes," and have no sympathy whatever with democratic tendencies; and yet it is these very officials who must be consulted on every point of law, statistics, practice, and precedent in the framing of the Home-Rule Bill. The Irish Parliamentary party may be on the best of terms with the English Government, but their advice is given from a standpoint of irresponsibility, and without the requisite acquaintance with and access to official records and returns which may be perverted to suit the views of their opponents. The English Liberal Government might reasonably have refused to deal with the home-rule question unless upon the terms of every political office vacated by the change of parties being accepted by a Parliamentary Nationalist. The position of the Irish Secretary, whose subordinates are bitterly opposed to his political views and objects, will be most difficult. The late W. E. Forster, who came to Ireland with the best and most kindly intentions, completely succumbed to his environment; Mr. Morley will not succumb, but he will work under the greatest disadvantages and difficulties.

No new legislation can be introduced for six months, and the interval ought to give plenty of time for careful preparation of the Home-Rule Bill. In the meantime, the existing laws must be enforced, and it is believed that the landlord party is deliberately preparing to embarrass the Government by evicting tenants systematically, enforcing legal rights which they refrained from doing during the late Government's administration. Such a course of action will, however, only prepare the way for more radical reforms. The rent-fixing tribunals were appointed by a Government out of sympathy with and ignorant of the necessities of the people; they were composed of individuals drawn exclusively from the landlord class, with the result that the greater number of judicial rents are not only too high to enable tenants to "live and thrive," but in many cases impossible of payment. The reductions of rent decreed by the Irish land courts are generally much less than those which have been voluntarily given by English landlords. Any general campaign against the tenants will therefore only make legal reductions on the first opportunity imperatively urgent.

The evicted-tenants question is that which for the moment occupies political attention. It is supposed that there are about 5,000 families, most of whom belong to estates where the "plan of campaign" was put into operation. With the exception of Smith Barry's Tipperary estate, where the tenants surrendered their holdings as a protest against the landlords' conduct in interfering to prevent a peaceful settlement on a neighboring property, the evicted tenants lost their holdings and homes from inability to pay exorbitant rents; in most cases they might have had "fair" rents fixed by the land courts, but these tribunals did not possess the confidence of the farmers, and in the plan-of-campaign districts were fixing rents at an impossible figure. Mr. Gladstone suggested that landlords might find it wise to agree with their tenants, and so obviate the necessity for legislation. In the absence of any such conciliatory action, a royal commission might usefully investigate these cases and recommend legislation. No government should permit the continued existence of such centres of disturbance as these estates have become from mismanagement, political passion, and enforcement of unjust laws.

Another subject which needs investigation before legislation is the fiscal system of the United Kingdom, which is admittedly unjust in its effect on Ireland. The poorest country in Europe is fiscally linked to, and is taxed as if it were an integral part of, the richest country, with the same requirements for defence, foreign relations, and protection of commerce. Mr. Robert Giffen, the best known of English statisticians, estimated in 1886 that Ireland's capacity for taxation was one-fiftieth that of the United Kingdom, yet for many years Ireland has been paying one-twelfth of the imperial revenue. The income-tax assessment is £17 per head in England and £5½ per head in Ireland, yet the rate of imperial taxation is 6s. in the pound in Ireland and only 3s. 1d. in the pound in England. Ireland's assessment is stricter than that of England, and it includes four or five millions of Irish rents paid to and wholly spent by persons resident in England. If allowance is made for these facts, the rate of imperial taxation is three times heavier in Ireland than in England. It is not surprising that Mr. Giffen should have stated that in these circumstances "there can be little accumulation of wealth in Ireland," and that "nearly the whole taxable income of the Irish people is absorbed by the State." Ireland has no need of the expensive defence and diplomatic services which Great Britain requires, yet she is expected to contribute a full proportion. If royalty is an advantage to Great Britain, it is certainly not to Ireland, yet we not only pay a proportion of that costly service, but have to pay separately for the Lord Lieutenant, who receives a larger salary than the President of the United States.

Unless the fiscal aspect of the home-rule question is fully considered and satisfactorily disposed of, a very substantial and vital Irish grievance will remain an open sore. Irishmen will very properly object both to paying more than their due proportion of the revenue fixed according to Ireland's comparative capacity for taxation, and to paying for services from which Ireland can derive no benefit. At present, financial solidarity is insisted upon in collection of the revenue, but is disclaimed in matters of expenditure. Ireland, from her remoteness from the political centre, and less requirements for defence, imperial show, and dignity, does not and cannot derive any benefit from a large part of the imperial expenditure, which is on a scale unsuited to the circumstances of a poor country like Ireland, where the chief and almost sole occupation of the inhabitants is farming. The cost of the Irish police and of education is now paid out of the imperial revenue, and if these expenses were thrown on the Irish revenue, a contribution of two millions instead of eight millions would appear to be what Ireland ought to pay on the principle of equality, and to be as much as she could afford. An Irishman.

BOSSUET AS AN HISTORIAN.

Paris, September 1, 1892.

I have read with much curiosity—few people, I am afraid, will imitate me—a compendious book on 'Bossuet, Historian of Protestantism,' by M. Alfred Rébelliau, who left not long ago our Superior Normal School, and is now a professor in our Faculty of Letters at Rennes. Bossuet's name is sure to draw the attention of whoever cares for our classic French literature; but I am afraid the number of such persons is diminishing day by day.

M. Rébelliau's subject is very limited: he does not speak of Bossuet as a writer, as a preacher, as the author of immortal "oraisons funèbres"; he deals only with Bossuet the historian. As such, Bossuet comes before us with two great works, the 'Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle' and the 'Histoire des Variations des Églises Protestantes. M. Rébelliau has not much to say on the first of these two works, which is a general survey of the history of the world, written by a professor for a pupil—a pupil who was to be the King of France; he regards Bossuet chiefly as the author of the 'Histoire des Variations,' and here he exhausts completely his subject, with an abundance of notes and of documents which does great credit to his industry. Renan has professed to be scandalized because the 'Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle' still remains on the programmes of our classical education; and surely nothing can be more different from our modern historical method than the method of Bossuet. Scherer, one of our best modern critics, in an imaginary conversation between a few writers, says of Bossuet: "Bossuet! a man who had read nothing, who knew nothing!" Sainte-

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Beuve is much in the same spirit: he cares little for Bossuet as an historian; he is under the charm only of his beautiful style. He recognizes in the Bishop of Meaux "the man of all the authorities and of all the stabilities," a "sacerdotal" character, incapable of yielding, without any elasticity, devoid of all scientific instinct. Even in Bossuet's time, in 1686, Jurieu, the great Protestant writer, accused him of ignorance. "M. de Meaux," said he, "is one of those court bishops whose business it is to study nothing."

M. Rébelliau has undertaken to prove that as an historian Bossuet does not deserve such a severe condemnation. He has undertaken to study the documents which Bossuet used in his history of the Protestant churches, and to judge the manner in which he used them. How was Bossuet led to write the history of what he calls the "Variations in the Protestant churches"? Was it because he had under his eye a book printed in Geneva in 1654, 'Syntagma Confessionum Fidei,' etc., a collection of the discordant articles of faith of the various Protestant sects, condemning each other on many points? No, he had a higher aim: he wished to renew, to rejuvenate the old controversies between the Catholics and the Protestants. At the time of the Reformation these controversies were very ardent and very encyclopædic: they touched a hundred different points. Richelieu had taken part in them, and, not content with having taken La Rochelle, he had hoped to bring back the Protestants to Catholicism by discussion and persuasion. Mazarin, though he was a Cardinal, did not care much for theology; and it may be said that during the reign of Louis XIV. the Catholic Church and royalty were more inclined to use force than persuasion. Heresy was looked upon as a danger to the State. Theological discussion had almost ceased entirely when the Jansenist movement began. It has been said that Jansenism was, so to speak, a second edition of French Protestantism. Though the moralists and theologians of Port Royal defended themselves against the imputation of Calvinism, they had a visible affinity with it: they showed it in their mysticism, in their horror of superstition, in their Puritanic morals, in the sobriety, discreetness, and dryness of their ceremonies, in a certain severity of doctrine and of life. The Jansenist movement, which has been so carefully studied by Sainte-Beuve, was a curious sort of revival of the ideas which the Protestants of the sixteenth century had defended sword in hand. It was an aristocratic movement, like the Calvinistic movement; only, as it manifested itself at the time when monarchy was absolute, it never left the domain of thought and remained purely theological.

If Bossuet had espoused the ideas of Jansenius, he would perhaps have made a revolution in the French Church, and accomplished what the doctors of Port Royal were unable to do; but Bossuet was in essence conservative, and he wrote the 'History of the Variations' chiefly in order to prove that the true character of the Church lay in unity of doctrine. He condemned the Protestants because they were divided into various sects; that would, perhaps, have been enough, from his theological point of view, but, as the cause of the Church seemed to him absolutely tied to the cause of monarchy, which he could not conceive otherwise than as orthodox and sacerdotal, he condemned the Protestants also as enemies of the State. Here the historian came forward, and he had to give a history of the religious wars of France during the sixteenth century. I will not enter here into the theological part of the work of Bossuet; the spirit of it is condensed in a line on the first page of the 'History of the Variations,' in which he says that "the truth which comes from God has at once all its perfection." It became a favorite argument of the Catholic theologians, after Bossuet, to charge against the Reformation the variations and the variability of the several confessions of faith of the Protestant churches, and there has often been manifested in the Protestant churches themselves a desire to reunite once more all the churches in one universal church. The historical part of Bossuet's work is entirely subordinate to the theological; but this secondary part was, however, important. M. Rébelliau takes great pains to prove that Bossuet had prepared himself well for it. Historical studies were certainly not held in so much honor as they are to-day. Descartes and the Cartesians looked on them with some contempt; Malebranche and La Bruyère laughed at the "savants de mémoire." But there was a group of men who did not despise the original documents on which history is founded: Le Nain de Tillemont, though a Jansenist, was a good historian; the Benedictine monks, Mabillon in particular, who were very erudite, were in correspondence with Bossuet. Modern criticism has many faults to find with the 'Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle,' but on the whole Bossuet's errors are trifling; you may discuss the spirit of the work, the facts are generally exact. I turn at once to the history of the religious wars in France. Bossuet explains in these words why he introduced this subject in his great work on the 'Variations':

"The Protestants," he says, "began in France as well as in Germany by declaring very loudly that they would not use violence in order to defend their persecuted faith and to bring about the triumph of their religion. This principle was inscribed in the confessions of faith and other public acts of the party; it was proclaimed by the doctors, by Calvin and Beza, as well as by Luther and by Melanchthon. It was a dogma of the Reformation at its origin. In 1560, however, a religious war breaks out in France, and it finds theologians to absolve it, synods to encourage it. There is a dogma dead as soon as born; there is a new variation to be added to the list of contradictions of the Reformation."

Was it very necessary in 1665, when the Court was visibly meditating the violent suppression of Protestantism in the kingdom, to represent the Protestants as animated by a spirit hostile to the French monarchy? Neither Mazarin nor Louis XIV. had ever had to complain of the loyalty of the Protestants. Ever since the Duke of Rohan signed the peace of Alais, the Protestants had ceased to exist in France as a party; it was ungenerous to recall the long and bloody struggles of the past. It is clear that, consciously or unconsciously, Bossuet was preparing the overthrow of the Edict which still protected the last Protestant churches. Had he a right to reproach the Protestants with having defended their churches, sword in hand, when the parlements and the intendants were asking for the revocation of the Edict of Nantes?

Bossuet has no other object in the historical part of his work than to throw suspicion on the loyalty of the French Calvinists and to find arguments against the perpetual validity of the Edict of Nantes. It is idle now to discuss the legitimacy of the religious wars of the sixteenth century and of the beginning of the seventeenth century. The answers made by Jurieu, Burnet, Basnage to the part of Bossuet's work which relates to that period forced him to write in 1691 a 'Defence of the History of the Variations.' Here again Bossuet tried to demonstrate that the French Reformers "began the civil war 'par principe et en corps d'église.'" He used freely the declarations of some of the synods.

The 'History of the Variations' was much read and it had a great influence even on the Protestants. It somewhat changed the character of their polemical works. It probably did not convert a single reformer, but it forced the Protestant writers to change, on some questions, their argumentation. Jurieu and others boldly vindicated for the French reformers the right to rise against tyranny. "M. de Meaux," says Jurieu, "must learn that we are not ashamed to find in our synods decisions from which he concludes that we do not consider it always forbidden to use arms in favor of religion." The first Protestant writers had looked upon the Albigenses, the Vaudois, and the other heretics of the middle ages as their spiritual ancestors. Bossuet takes advantage of this solidarity; since his time the great majority of French Protestants have disavowed the doctrines of those heretics. Beausobre, for instance, sees only essays at reformation in their attempts. "I have looked," he says, "for ancestors for our *réformés;* the Albigenses cannot be these ancestors."

Bossuet had drawn striking portraits of Luther, Melanchthon, Calvin, Beza; he had shown their weaknesses, their failings. Jurieu, Basnage, and others wrote on the founders of the Reformation with a modesty which was not felt by the first Protestants. But the chief point of the 'History of the Variations,' the chief argument, was the doctrine of the perpetuity of the Catholic faith as opposed to the variability of the reformers. Jurieu tried to prove that the invariability of the Catholic doctrine was not real; that the most essential dogmas of Christendom till the fourth and fifth centuries of the Church had changed their external form; that the Church had undergone an evolution, and that this evolution had not come to an end. Here Jurieu struck at the very root of the question. Inconstancy is the lot of man. You may enclose a doctrine in a network of formulas and of words; the ideas which these words embody will evaporate in the end and nothing will be left of them. "Variation," writes Basnage, "far from being a proof of falsehood, is often necessary to the pursuit of the truth."

Correspondence.

THE BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY'S LIBERALITY TO AUTHORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to the following statement in your paper of August 18, 1892:

"We regret to learn that the Boston Public Library no longer exercises that discretion which led it, by an enlightened view of its duties and its interests, to grant to persons actually engaged in authorship the privilege of occasionally drawing books, although non-residents. The custom which has been discontinued was a generous one, but it illustrated the liberal public spirit which Massachusetts men desire to have characterize their institutions. It is certainly not far beyond the sphere of a great public library that it should assist literature upon necessary occasion or proper convenience; yet, at present, the loan of a book only for a few hours is refused."

Will you permit me, in the interest of the Library, to state in the columns of your paper that there is not a particle of foundation for the above statements, and that the

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policy of the trustees has always been, and still is, to increase the facilities for the use of the Library rather than to curtail them?

Very respectfully yours,
SAMUEL A. B. ABBOTT,
President Trustees.

PUBLIC LIBRARY OF THE CITY OF BOSTON,
September 12, 1892.

[We were aware of the printed rule which permits non-residents to draw books by special vote and "for weighty reasons." Until within two years, we believe, it was customary to issue books to persons engaged in literary work without this formality; and, in particular, authors residing at a distance were permitted to receive books by mail or express through responsible officers of the Library who kindly charged themselves with this duty. This was the custom which we referred to as a generous one, which is used at the British Museum, is common on the Continent and is gaining in this country, and which was discontinued at the Boston Library. In consequence of orders then given, forbidding subordinate officers to send away books in response to such requests, authors who had drawn in this way ceased to do so, understanding that they were debarred. Two instances of this have been brought to our notice. There is little reason to question that the effect which the measure had was aimed at, as the printed rule does not contemplate the case of an author who cannot present himself in person at the desk.

The incident which occasioned our comment was a much simpler matter than sending books to authors at a distance. It was the refusal of the loan of a book for twenty-four hours to Prof. George E. Woodberry. In editing his new edition of Shelley's poems, which is to contain the variorum readings of all editions and all known MSS., he went to the library to verify certain readings in his proofs by the facsimile of the MS. of "The Mask of Anarchy," published by the Shelley Society. On examination he found that changes must be made in proofs already returned to the press and immediately to be cast, and a vexatious delay could be avoided only by taking the book to Beverly for the night. A single star showed that the volume was open to restricted circulation; it was of the value of ten shillings, and, though one of an edition of 500 copies, could at present be easily replaced if lost; its only use was that to which Prof. Woodberry would have put it. He thus relates what took place:

"I sent in my card to the librarian, and, on his coming out, shook hands with him, showed the book and my proof, explained the situation, and made my request. 'Beverly,' said the librarian, 'is, I believe, not a part of Boston.' I replied that the favor would oblige me and the printers. 'I know of no rule,' he said, 'which permits it.' I remained silent, being, indeed, somewhat abashed by the brief lesson in geography which I had received, and he turned and left me. What followed was more singular. I went to the publishers and ordered the types held, but, on explaining why, was offered one of the firm's cards on which to obtain the book. I returned to the library, but, although the assistants and one of the officers, to whom I was well known, kindly made a half-hour's search, the book was 'lost.' I was told that it should be reserved for me at the desk, and the next day found it there with a written slip, 'Not to be taken out. By order of Mr. Dwight.' The intention of the librarian that I should not have the book, even on an entitled card, was plain. The librarian of the Providence Library, on hearing of the affair, placed any books there at my disposal, and the Harvard College Library immediately sent the book by mail."

The refusal, on the ground of non-residence, was direct, responsible, and not further explained. There was no intimation that non-resident authors could obtain books in any way; on the contrary, the impression plainly meant to be conveyed was that they had neither rights nor privileges in the Library. The rules were cited and the request disposed of as a matter of routine in the ordinary course, as one of a class of cases. It was, as we characterized it, an incident "unfit to happen" in such a place. If the Board should grant the librarian a share of that discretionary power in which he is apparently so poor, it would materially assist in carrying out the intention of usefulness expressed by its President; and if the Board should find some simple mode of obliging authors at a distance, on necessary occasion or proper convenience, as we said, the Library would escape unfavorable comparison with Harvard and Providence, as well as with its neighbor, the Athenæum, Yale, the American Antiquarian Society, and other libraries which are as excellent in their administration as they are rich in special collections.—ED. NATION.]

MR. ADAMS'S QUINCY ADDRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you have mentioned my name in connection with the charter of the city of Quincy, I should like to say a few words with regard to it. The professed object of that charter was to concentrate power and responsibility in the hands of the Mayor, but it must be admitted, so far as I can learn, that it has failed to accomplish this object. The control of the city finance and administration is still in the hands of the Council, with very little check by the Mayor. The city expenditure is parcelled out by a log-rolling process among the districts, with very little consideration of the total. I do not think that the election of councilmen-at-large, instead of by districts, would make any difference. I believe the experiment has already been tried in Boston, and it was found that the elected members represented districts just as before. Again, it would take a good deal of compulsion to make some men serve in positions where their reputation is sure to be tainted, where they can get no credit for good work, and must bear their full share of blame for bad. I am not sure that a term in the State's-prison would not by many be regarded as a desirable alternative.

The object to be aimed at remains the same, even if the Quincy charter has failed to accomplish it—namely, such concentration of power and responsibility in individuals that the best and largest part of the voters—those who can, and do, give the least attention to politics—shall be able to see clearly where praise and blame belong, and award them with a minimum of effort. Now the mainspring of city as well as all other politics is finance. The English national is beyond comparison the first public finance in the world, simply because Parliament never proposes an expenditure or a tax. The whole subject is in the hands of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who manages it like his private purse, though subject to his responsibility to Parliament and the nation. The next drastic step in city government would be to have a city treasurer appointed by the Mayor on his sole responsibility, and to leave to that treasurer the whole subject of revenue and expenditure, allowing the Council or Aldermen only to accept or reject his proposals—or, in other words, the veto power. That would very speedily bring the district politicians into line. Something like this already exists in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in Brooklyn and I think in New York, but that is also an impersonal body, and its plans are sent to the Aldermen in writing, so that there is still a failure of public discussion and criticism and of individual responsibility.

One other firm conviction has been forced upon me by years of study and observation, that the only way to effectively improve city government is to attack its source in that of the State. The whole organization and administration of the cities are dependent upon the State governments; and, though the evil is less directly felt, these are by far the worst of the two. Nowhere in the country does this omnipresent problem of the confusion of executive and legislative power, and the absorption of the former by the latter, project itself more offensively or call more loudly for reform. I covet, with exceeding greediness of desire, for Massachusetts the honor of being the first to lay her hand to this work. In this Presidential year nothing can be done, but next year I propose to try once more whether the attention of the people of this State, and particularly of the young men, from whom the most and a great deal of generous and disinterested work is to be expected, cannot be directed to this important subject, and whether State politics cannot be turned towards some other distinction than that, the absurdity of which you so justly stigmatize, between Republicans and Democrats.

GAMALIEL BRADFORD.

BOSTON, September 17, 1892.

BERLIN'S MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the May number of the American edition of the *Review of Reviews*, Dr. Albert Shaw published an extremely interesting article on the municipal problems of New York and London—an article that has attracted widespread attention. As an American student of municipal government, I beg to analyze some of the statements made by Dr. Shaw, as well as to raise some doubts as to the validity of some of his applications of European experience to American conditions. In taking examples from Continental cities I shall limit myself to Berlin, with which I am most familiar. It is generally agreed by students of municipal government that of all the modern metropolises, Berlin is without a doubt the best and most economically governed. Its citizens pay less and receive more than those of London, Paris, New York, or Philadelphia. From this it by no means follows that its institutions would allow of transplanting to American soil. The traditions of the Prussian monarchy, the position of the Prussian municipalities in the

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organism of the State, the admirable civil-service system which pervades every branch of the State and local administration, a more earnest conception of the duties of citizenship rather than its rights—all these are elements which make the premises of reasoning in the two cases totally different, and which render direct comparison extremely difficult—yes, well-nigh impossible. And yet there are certain political, economic, and ethical principles pervading all the different branches of the municipal administration which are very well adapted to furnish us with a criterion by which to judge the state of our American municipalities, the causes which have led to their degeneration, or rather stagnation, and to give us certain hints as to the direction of our development if we wish to fulfil the mission that civilization has placed upon our shoulders.

In this short communication I wish to direct attention exclusively to the two main tendencies of the article in question:

(1.) The idea that London and its recent reorganization should serve us as a model for the future reforms in American municipal government.

(2.) A seeming neglect of the experience of Continental cities, or, when they are mentioned, a misunderstanding as to the real factors that have so largely contributed to their efficiency.

While it is true that the problems of "Greater New York" would in many respects be analogous to those of London at the present day, it is equally true that those of "Greater Berlin" would offer the same analogies. For the present, however, it is *New York as she is* with which we have to deal. Such being the case, it is surprising that the author should have taken London as the standard of comparison, whereas Paris, and to a much higher degree Berlin, could furnish us with (in many respects) brilliant examples of the solution of some of the most difficult problems of municipal government—problems which London as yet has been unable to solve satisfactorily. The constitution of the "New County Council" is nothing more than an experiment, the results of which must be more definitely known before a decisive opinion can be expressed.

Dr. Shaw says (p. 287):

"The European cities have found that they can best govern themselves by reposing authority in a good-sized central elective body known as the Municipal Council, of which the Mayor, as a rule, is simply the presiding officer. All appointive authority and administrative power, as well as authority for the raising of municipal revenues and for the appropriation and expenditure of municipal moneys, is centred in this Municipal Council. Every ramification of the complicated system flows from the central reservoir of authority and of administrative energy."

We do not know what cities Dr. Shaw may have in mind; at all events, the conditions above described are not in harmony with either of the two great Continental cities, Berlin and Paris. In point of fact, the very organization against which Dr. Shaw throws the full weight of his judgment and authority is here realized to a greater or less extent. He says (p. 286):

"American city government has had a curious system. Its purposes have generally failed to be properly conceived, and attempts have been made to organize it upon mischievous analogies. The Common Council has been treated as if it were a legislative body, and the Mayor has, in a general way, been regarded as the chief of an executive department. But there has been no logical partition between the two because the analogy at the outset was a false one. The whole government of a city exists properly to carry on a series of business enterprises which grow out of the massing at a central point of a large body of people. There is no pertinence in the attempt to separate the executive head from the body which makes municipal regulations and votes upon income and expenditure."

It is not my object to go into the details of either the Berlin or the Paris administration. Where, however, this autocratic, this "all-appointive and administrative authority" of the Municipal Council is to be found, is to me unknown. At any rate, of the two great Continental cities, Paris and Berlin, the latter offers Dr. Shaw by far the stronger case, for it can hardly be possible that the author would think of exemplifying his doctrines by means of the Paris administration, which is in reality no more of a municipality, in the true sense of that word, than is New York.

At Berlin, however, it seems to me that the division of authority is pretty closely drawn, and along the same lines as in the case of the State authority. As to the Municipal Council being an autocratic body, this is far from being the true state of the case. If it be possible to speak of one of the integral parts of a municipal organism as being the more important, I should be tempted to give that place to the "Magistrat," which occupies in some respects the position of a select council, whereas in others it is the executive organ of the city administration. The members of the "Magistrat" are elected by the Municipal Council, but their election requires the confirmation of the King of Prussia. They are elected for six or twelve years, according to their position. As a matter of fact, those members whose functions are of a more technical nature, requiring long preparatory study, generally remain in office for life. As presiding officer of the "Magistrat," and at the same time as highest representative of the personality of the city, stands the "Oberbürgermeister." He is the real executive, for under his leadership and control the "Magistrat" exercises its executive authority. He also has a veto power upon the bills passed by the Municipal Council and "Magistrat."

These are but the very barest outlines of the Berlin administration, which would necessarily undergo some modifications in a detailed description, especially in treating of the exact relation between Municipal Council and "Magistrat" and between "Magistrat" and "Oberbürgermeister." It is true that the Municipal Council of Berlin possesses very great powers, but these powers resemble closely those of a House of Representatives—that is, a "purse power" and financial control. But as to having by itself an appointive and administrative power, that is out of the question. In reality, its financial powers are limited by the fact that the "Magistrat" has to prepare the bills to be laid before the Municipal Council, has the right to send representatives to the Council to uphold these measures, and, after passage by the latter body, has still a practical right of veto. The only redress for the Council is an appeal to the "Bezirksausschuss," a kind of administrative court which has peculiar legislative powers. The relation between "Magistrat" and Municipal Council reminds one in some respects of the position occupied by the Imperial Council and Imperial Diet of the German Empire.

To go any deeper into this part of the subject would exceed the limits that I have set myself. At least one point I hope to have made clear, viz., that an appeal to the present conditions of Continental cities as examples of administrations with almost autocratic municipal councils of which "the Mayor, as a rule, is simply the presiding officer," is by no means justifiable, and is entirely misleading as to the true state of affairs. This being the case, the question very naturally arises, Is all that against which Dr. Shaw argues with such vehemence really as worthless as one would be led to infer from his statements? Is it an illogical division of municipal powers to regard "the Common Council as a legislative, and the Mayor as the chief of an executive, department"? Is the theory that a city is not much more than a business corporation on a large scale a correct one? In these three points it seems to me that Dr. Shaw has erred in carrying to their extremes three doctrines which are true only when kept within certain limits.

As regards the first question, a sufficient answer should be the description of the organization of Berlin. The weak point in American municipal government does not lie so much in our *principle* of the division of authority as in the haphazard way in which such authority is actually divided. The anything but satisfactory experiences made with our present system have led Dr. Shaw to throw the whole principle overboard, which is, however, by no means necessary. Without in any way attempting to sketch plans for reform, it is evident that rather than unduly to strengthen the power of the Common Council, it must be our endeavor to strengthen the position and clearly define the responsibility of the Mayor; and where a second chamber (Select Council) exists, to strengthen its financial and administrative control. The possibility of an extension of the system of honorary offices, and the development of a more efficient system of administrative responsibility and control, is too complicated a question to be entered upon here.

Before closing, I wish to add a short comment upon Dr. Shaw's apparent conception of the municipality as a large business corporation. As he expresses it, "the whole government of a city exists properly to carry on a series of business enterprises which grow out of the massing at a central point of a large body of people." This is true as far as it goes, but the conception is a too narrow one, and would result in erroneous ideas regarding the true functions of a municipality. A municipality is much more than a large business corporation. It is clothed with certain public functions which cannot in any shape or form be crowded into the framework of any such corporation. The mischievous results of a conception such as the author's show themselves in the doctrines of municipal taxation of the extreme individualistic school of political economy. Their doctrines have had only too great influence in the actual development of municipal taxation upon the Continent. To a more liberal conception the future undoubtedly belongs.

LEO S. ROWE.

BERLIN, June, 1892.

FORM OF BALLOT IN PENNSYLVANIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Ballot-reformers generally may be interested to learn that the form of ballot finally adopted under the Pennsylvania law, in accordance with the opinion of the Attorney-General of the State, is much more favorable to honest, intelligent voting than that hitherto presumed to have been required by the language of the act. As originally drawn, the bill provided for the system of grouping by offices and individual marking adopted in Massachusetts and several other States—the "nonpartisan ballot," as it may rightly be called. The Senate Committee on Elections, under or-

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ders, as is generally believed, from Quay, made many changes for the worse, including the introduction, as was supposed, of the "partisan ballot" in its worst form—complete party tickets to be voted by a single mark; and the Secretary of the Commonwealth prepared a draft of the ballot in this form, presuming that to be what was required by the words used in the hastily-drawn substitute for the original provision.

The ballot-reformers had been so thoroughly disgusted at the treatment which their bill, in spite of its well-known popularity, had received, that they gave the whole matter little further attention, so that criticisms of the official interpretation came first from the Republican State Chairman and others of his party, who, though the partisan ballot was obviously in their favor, they having usually a large majority, had no desire to risk the electoral vote of Pennsylvania on a ballot of doubtful legality. After a conference between the party leaders, the matter was referred to the Attorney-General, who, though upholding the arrangement of names in parallel party columns, advised that the names of the candidates of each party must be placed, not in a single group, to be marked by one cross-mark, but in as many groups as there were certificates of nomination, *i. e.*, the State ticket in one group, the Congressional district ticket in another, and so on (a single candidate being in many instances required, in the language of *Dundreary*, to "flock all by himself" in a group of one), and each group must be marked separately.

Under this system even the most rigid partisan cannot vote the straight ticket by a single mark, but must make at least one mark for each of the five or six groups, while the man of average independence is at all events not encouraged to vote on strictly party lines in order to save trouble. In those legislative districts where the desire to secure a vote against Quay has produced either disaffection or a positive split among the Republicans, the Attorney-General's opinion is naturally received with great satisfaction by those engaged in the anti-Quay fight.

CHARLES C. BINNEY.

PHILADELPHIA, September 16, 1892.

Notes.

DUPRAT & CO., 349 Fifth Avenue, announce for publication early in November 'The Book-lover's Almanac for the Year 1893,' with twelve full-page illustrations in color by Henriot. Only 600 copies will be printed, on Japan and on Holland paper, by the De Vinne Press.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have in press Matthew Arnold's selections from Wordsworth, illustrated in photogravure by E. H. Garrett; and Walton's 'Complete Angler' in two volumes, reproducing Major's edition, illustrations and all.

G. P. Putnam's Sons expect to continue their edition of Edmondo De Amicis's writings with a translation of his latest volume, 'School and Home,' and with the romance on which he is now engaged, 'The First of May.'

'College Requirements in English,' compiled by the Rev. Arthur Wentworth Eaton, for the various fitting schools of the country, with specimen examination papers, will be issued by Ginn & Co.

Two books somewhat akin are announced for publication this winter by Longmans, Green & Co. One is the autobiography of Sir Henry Parkes, to be called 'Fifty Years in the Making of Australian History'; and the other is 'The Biography of Robert Lowe (Lord Sherbrooke),' by Mr. A. Patchett Martin.

Capt. Cook's journal of his first voyage round the world, never before printed, is to be edited by Capt. Wharton, R.N., and supplied with maps and charts, for publication by Elliot Stock, London.

Three volumes by Prof. Adolf Bastian, 'Ideale Welten nach uranographischen Provinzen in Wort und Bild' (Berlin: Felber), are on the eve of publication. The first will contain a description of his travels in India in 1890; the second will be devoted to ethnology and history and their mutual relations, especially as exemplified by the races of India; and the third will give an account of Indian cosmogonies and theogonies, including a thorough examination and critical analysis of the system of the Jainas.

Prof. Willard Fiske is passing through the press at Florence one of his "asides" from bibliographical labor. This is a trial list of vulgar Arabic words, which he has edited in collaboration with Mr. Socrates Spiro of Cairo. The list is followed by a grammatical synopsis, consisting chiefly of paradigms and examples, both given in the simple but ingenious modification of the Latin alphabet designed by the late Spitta Bey, a man who deserved well of Egypt, not only for his work on the vulgar Arabic, but for his organization of the Khedivial Library. Prof. Fiske, however, omits the semi-vowels as making the system too complicated. The list generally presents the irregular or *broken* plurals of the nouns and the principal part (the imperfect) of such verbs as are irregular in that form. The sentences in the grammatical parts exhibit the capacity of the language of the people to treat almost any subject—historical, scientific, etc. Whatever the shortcomings of the work, it will at any rate be a modest beginning in the laudable endeavor to make the spoken language of the Arabic people its literary tongue, recorded by means of an alphabet far easier to acquire than the cumbrous one now in use. The volume will be privately printed at the Landi press in Florence, and will be in modern Arabic down even to the bastard title.

Mr. Charles Warren Stoddard's 'South Sea Idyls' makes its reappearance after nineteen years with the imprint of Charles Scribner's Sons. Mr. Howells, in a flattering introductory letter to the author, bespeaks a better reception for the book than it had when the late J. R. Osgood first published it on the eve of the financial panic of 1873. We are now, however, in the midst of a cholera panic and a Presidential campaign, unimpassioned though the latter is. Moreover, while Mr. Stoddard's fantasy and humor have probably still a power to charm and amuse, he now has to compete in style and theme with Robert Louis Stevenson and Rudyard Kipling, who were unknown and unexpected in 1873.

Another reprint by the same firm is a pretty two-volume edition of J. G. Holland's 'Kathrina' and 'Bittersweet,' each with an etched frontispiece and a "cameo" binding. These poems are just a quarter-century old and call for no renewal of criticism. No more does the Baroness Tautphoeus's evergreen 'Initials,' which the Putnams have just brought out in a handy "Hildegarde Edition" in two volumes of clear type, fit to be re-read by eyes no longer young.

Like McPherson's Political Handbooks, Mr. Edward Stanwood's 'History of Political Elections' has become a permanent necessity. A third edition, revised, has just been issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Its novelty consists in its added chapter on "The Second Harrison." This deals, of course, not with Mr. Harrison's Administration, not yet closed, but with the events which led up to his renomination. The exposition of facts is marked by the same candor and non-partisanship which so much enhance the value of Mr. Stanwood's compilation of platforms and electoral statistics. He calls attention to a discrepancy in the "official" footings of the total vote of 1888, amounting to more than 3,000, for which he cannot assign a cause. In the appendix, the Conventions of 1888 are replaced by those of 1892.

To all lovers of choice literature of the older school the retrieval from oblivion of anything by Thomas Fuller cannot but be most welcome. And we have, in good part, such a retrieval in the two volumes of his 'Selected Sermons, 1631-1659,' lately published by Pickering & Chatto, London. While, to the general reader such as he is in our age of rush and hurry, these discourses are of too little interest to warrant detail of their contents, it is enough, for those who are qualified to appreciate them, simply to announce their appearance. As specimens of typography, their place is in the first rank; and harmonious with their quaint external daintiness is the reverent and critical care which has been bestowed, editorially, on these scattered remains of a famous old divine. The idea of collecting and annotating them originated with the late Mr. John Eglington Bailey, already favorably known by his excellent 'Life of Fuller,' and had been largely realized by him at the time of his premature death. For the completion of Mr. Bailey's unfinished undertaking we are indebted to his friend, Mr. William E. A. Axon. Of the manner in which their task has been accomplished it would be difficult to speak in terms of praise exaggerating their deserts.

The concluding parts of the current Annual Supplement to 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (New York: Westermann) are now at hand. Among the noticeable features are a fourteen-pages-long list of German romances from the seventeenth century to 1891, by way of exhibiting its wealth of subject; an elaborate article on socialistic fiction (*Staatsromane*), from Sir Thomas More's 'Utopia' and Harrington's 'Oceana' to Bellamy's 'Looking Backward,' in many subdivisions; a review of Social Democracy, with the text of the German platform and a glance at receipts, expenditures, and growth of its newspaper organs; a survey of national debts; an account of the various parliaments of Europe and the United States; statistics of city and suburban railroads, New York included, with maps. To these add articles on typewriting machines, on reform in the studies of universities and high schools; on Troy, with Dörpfeld's plans based on Schliemann's last excavations; on the habitability of the sun and Mars, etc.; on slavery and the slave-trade in Africa, etc. As last year, there is an analytic table of contents and a necrological conspectus.

The bibliography of Ibsen grows apace; not only are there magazine essays and newspaper articles in plenty, but of books also there are not a few. The latest is one of the best; it is a critical study of 'Henrik Ibsen et le Théâtre contemporain' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern), by M. Auguste Ehrhard, a professor of the faculty of Clermont-Ferrand. M. Ehrhard makes four groups of Ibsen's plays, the Romantic, the Philosophic ("Peer Gynt"), the Modern (from the "League of Youth" to "Ghosts"), and the Symbolic (from "An Enemy of the People"

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to "Hedda Gabler"). The classification is a little arbitrary, but it is obviously convenient. M. Ehrhard does not insist quite as strongly as he might on the perfect understanding of the theatre which Ibsen has.

Maps of the battlefield of Antietam are the main feature of Part 6 of the Atlas to accompany the 'Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies' in process of issuance by the War Department at Washington. But South Mountain, Gettysburg, Sharpsburg, Fredericksburg, Stone River, and other famous fields are also depicted by Federal or Confederate officials, and there is even a map of the region about Washington, dating from July, 1861, at the opening of McClellan's session in front of the capital.

G. W. & C. B. Colton & Co. have revised their folding map of Brooklyn, showing the new ward boundaries, railroad lines (of which there are 46 on the surface), etc. The scale is four inches to a mile.

The Stralsund sheet of Dr. Vogel's map of the German Empire (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann) might, in itself considered, as appropriately be called the Copenhagen sheet, since the capital and much of the insular part of the Danish kingdom are shown on it, with a part of Sweden. A second sheet, designated Bromberg, takes us away from the coast into the glacial lake-region of West Prussia.

Thomas Hardy is another English author whose American editions get bedevilled. He writes to the *Critic* that he could not control the omission of the explanatory preface which appears in all the English editions of his 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles.' He further illustrates the crudeness of our present copyright law when he says: "I may add in this connection that the necessity for (at least) simultaneous publication in America of English books, to secure copyright, renders it almost impossible that the latest addenda of an author should be incorporated in the foreign imprint. Could even a fortnight's grace be allowed, final touches, given just before going to press on this side, would not be excluded from American copies, as they now are in so many cases."

—A unique institution is about to be established in Weimar. It is neither university nor academy, nor yet, strictly speaking, a library, but it is, nevertheless, an intellectual workshop of great importance to writers and scholars the world over. It is an enlargement of the scope of the well-known Goethe-Schiller Archives, out of which it has developed naturally and organically. In 1888 Baron von Gleichen-Russwurm, the grandson of Schiller, and one of the foremost landscape painters of Germany, made over to the Goethe Archives all the papers of his celebrated grandfather, and the Archives thereupon took the double name of the poet pair. The papers of Herder and Wieland having already been deposited there, it was an easy step to the idea of a universal German archive; this idea has now taken definite and practical form. The new institution is to serve a twofold purpose: it is primarily a place of safe deposit for the literary remains and manuscript treasures of all the great writers of Germany, in whatever field of intellectual activity they may have labored; and it will furthermore afford unrivalled facilities to investigators, scholars, editors, and critics who wish to have access to the original sources and to study their authors at first hand. The Archives will continue under the supervision of the scholarly Prof. Suphan, and the present name, which will lose none of its appropriateness under the new conditions will probably be retained. The success of this enterprise is now assured, and a special building for the purpose is to be erected at the expense of the Grand Duchess herself.

—It has been thought fitting that an opportunity should be afforded to all persons interested in German literature of associating their names with this institution, and an appeal has accordingly been issued, signed by some forty of the most prominent men of Germany. Although the funds for building have been appropriated, money will nevertheless be necessary for the enlarging of the library to be used in connection with the work of the Archives. Even the smallest sums will be acceptable; the essential point is that America should manifest her interest in an enterprise of such importance to the world of letters, and that the names of a goodly number of her citizens should appear on the list of founders and be deposited in the corner-stone of the building, which is soon to be erected. The presentation of the fund thus subscribed is to take place upon the occasion of the golden wedding of the Grand-Ducal pair, on the 8th of October next. Contributions should therefore be sent at once to the banking firm of Robert Warschauer & Co., Berlin.

—Mr. N. H. Thompson contributes to the current number of the *Political Science Quarterly* a valuable article upon the control of national expenditures. From an early day, Congress has endeavored to check the extravagance of administrative officers. Gallatin successfully labored for Congressional restrictions upon the discretion of heads of departments in the use of public moneys, and labored with more earnestness but with less success in securing general compliance with the rules after they were prescribed. But we have had few finance ministers as watchful as Gallatin. He gave every hour of the day and many of the night for the first two years of his service in order to understand and control all the details of the office, and, as he used afterwards to say at the end of his twelve years' term, he "was fairly worn out." It would be impossible at the present stage of our growth for a Secretary of the Treasury, with the McKinley Act and the cholera on his hands, to exercise any supervision over disbursements of the appropriations. Moreover, as Mr. Thompson contends, such supervision cannot be beneficially exercised by the officer who himself gives thousands of orders for the payment of money. His preliminary order "forecloses his subsequent judgment as to its legality." Granting that Congress should assume to give minute directions concerning the manner of disbursing the public money which it grants, it must be admitted that it should employ efficient means to enforce its commands. Administrative officers cannot be depended upon for this. Congress cannot directly control. But the accounting officers, if properly equipped and sustained, would prove, as Mr. Thompson thinks, an admirable agency. He suggests that they be organized anew—converted into an independent, semi-judicial body, distinct from any executive department. He would do away with the system of double examination of accounts, and provide for a greater degree of responsibility upon the part of clerks. He urges the unification of the several accounting offices, the contraction of their jurisdiction, and the enactment of a statute of limitation to bar public demands.

—The Department of Audit which Mr. Thompson advocates is a familiar institution in many European governments. If we should ever have a court of accounts, presided over by eminent magistrates holding office during good behavior, and authorized to select their own assistants, it would not be necessary for Congress to direct with minuteness the duties of the subordinates, or to take pains to give them that protection which Mr. Thompson now implores for them. On this subject the author, who is well qualified to speak, says:

"The present Civil-Service Law . . . throws its protecting ægis over the clerks only, and but partially and imperfectly over them; for among them a class which needs its protection most urgently is now left to bear the brunt of the affray and is slaughtered without mercy. When the Treasury Department was reorganized in 1875, chiefs of division were established in the various offices, it being the intention that these chiefs should be selected from the principal clerks, who, by reason of their knowledge, experience, and special training, would be well qualified to superintend and direct the other clerks in the discharge of their duties. From what has been said of the importance of the duties of the clerks in the accounting offices, it will be obvious that this was a judicious and admirable provision. Moreover, it offered a goal for the commendable ambition of meritorious clerks, and encouraged fidelity and proficiency. But the rules adopted by the Civil-Service Commission most inexcusably excepted such chiefs of division from examination. The effect of this injudicious concession to the patronage system has been to permit those important positions to be filled with inexperienced and merely nominal chiefs, incompetent to instruct and direct their trained subordinates. The rule thus operates in practice as a bar to the promotion of even the most worthy and meritorious clerks; for, being the only important positions in the departments at Washington which are in the free gift of the Secretary, they are regarded as choice plums to be exchanged for reciprocal favors, past or prospective, and they command a price in 'influence' which is beyond the reach of a department clerk."

—In a recent letter to the London *Guardian*, Archdeacon Cheetham pointed out some ecclesiastical inaccuracies, one of which was serious, in the latest volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' In the life of Kitchin, Bishop of Llandaff, it was stated correctly that he was expected to take part in the consecration of Archbishop Parker, but in fact did not do so. The writer then goes on to say: "No bishop consequently took part in the ceremony; a fact which gave rise to the great controversy as to the validity of English orders." Parker's consecrators were, of course, Barlow, Scory, and Coverdale; and, moreover, if the fact had been that "no bishop took part in the ceremony," it would not have raised, but settled for all time, the question of English orders. The author of the article explains in the *Guardian* of August 10 the cause of the misstatement. He wrote "bishop in office"—that is, in undisturbed possession of his see—but the words "in office" were accidentally dropped in the printing, making an omission trifling in form, but vital in effect. Mr. Shaw, the writer, adds that it was as far from his intention as it would be from the traditions of the 'Dictionary' to treat the question controversially from any standpoint. He ends his letter by expressing his satisfaction at finding that the 'Dictionary' is being so closely watched.

—Dr. Arthur Schuster, President of the Mathematical and Physical Section of the British Association, concluded his address at the recent meeting of that body by stating some problems the solution of which seems not beyond the reach of the physics of to-day: (1.) Is every large rotating mass a magnet? If it

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is, the sun must be a powerful magnet. The filaments of the solar corona probably consist of electric discharges. The effect of a magnet on the discharge is known, and careful investigation of the streamers of the corona ought to give answer to this question. (2.) Is there sufficient matter in interplanetary space to make it a conductor of electricity? Dr. Schuster believes the evidence to be in favor of that view. (3.) What is a sun-spot? The general appearance does not show marked cyclonic action; and (4) if the spots are not due to such motion, is it not possible that electric discharges setting out from the sun, and accelerating artificially evaporation at its surface, might cool those parts from which the discharge starts, and thus produce a sun-spot? (5.) May not the periodicity of sun-spots, and the connection between two such dissimilar phenomena as spots on the sun and magnetic disturbances on the earth, be due to periodically recurring increase of the electric conductivity of the regions of space surrounding the sun? Such an increase of conductivity might be produced by meteoric matter circulating round the sun. (6.) What causes the anomalous law of rotation of the solar photosphere? As all causes acting within the sun might cause its angular velocity to be smaller at the equator than at other latitudes, but could not make it greater, the only explanation open to us is an outside effect, either by an influx of meteoric matter, as suggested by Lord Kelvin, or in some other way. On the whole, the exceptional behavior of the solar surface deserves more careful attention, and its explanation seems likely to carry with it that of many other phenomena. It is gratifying to find that a young American astronomer, Mr. George E. Hale, recently elected to the University of Chicago, seems to have gone about this matter in the right way.

THREE BOOKS ON GREEK ART.

Histoire de la Sculpture Grecque. Par Maxime Collignon. Tome premier. Ouvrage illustré de 11 planches hors texte, en chromolithographie ou en heliogravure, et de 278 gravures dans le texte. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie. 1892. 4to, pp. x. and 569.

Antiquités du Bosphore Cimmérien (1854), rééditées avec un commentaire nouveau et un index général des *Comptes Rendus* par Salomon Reinach. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie. 1892. 4to, pls. 86, and pp. 213.

Handbook of Greek Archæology: Vases, bronzes, gems, sculpture, terracottas, mural paintings, architecture, etc. By A. S. Murray. With numerous illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. 8vo, pp. v. and 483.

It is now nearly ten years since Mrs. Mitchell published her admirable 'History of Ancient Sculpture,' and although work in the field of classical archæology has been active in the meantime, and new discoveries have led to essential modifications of many theories which were then generally accepted, no complete history of the art has usurped the place which was at once given to the work of that conscientious and painstaking woman. A number of small and condensed handbooks have made their appearance, and Mr. Murray has issued a second edition of his 'History of Greek Sculpture,' but Mrs. Mitchell's book has remained the standard compilation on the subject by the common agreement of German and French authorities, not less than by that of our own.

In the present rapidly developing state of our knowledge of Greek remains, classical archæology may be perhaps regarded as the least exact of all the sciences. Probably in no other branch of investigation does the discovery of to-day so frequently upset the theory of yesterday; and while with each decade the body of our fixed and established knowledge becomes larger and more strongly supported, the sum total of it is still so small as to discourage many of the ablest authorities from undertaking a work of such permanent character as a history purports to be. The story is told, and we believe with a basis of truth, that an eminent German professor completed a history of Greek sculpture some fifteen years ago, and has been deterred from bringing it out yet by the fact that he cannot keep the revision of his text abreast of the new theories and discoveries bearing upon different parts of it.

Such being the case, and with the knowledge that no history of this subject written at the present time, however carefully it may be prepared, can pretend to be the final word upon it, our gratitude is especially due to any scholar of the first rank who is willing to take the time and the trouble to present, in a popular form, a summary of what is known or thought at the period when he writes; and when he does this with the completeness and skill exhibited in this first volume of M. Collignon's History, he has produced a book of permanent value, no matter what the discoveries of another day may bring forth. Of small abridgments and manuals we have had enough and to spare during the last few years, and M. Collignon has wisely chosen to treat his subject in a larger and fuller manner, taking plenty of time and space to explain to his readers the different theories regarding such vexed questions as that of the "Mykenean" or "Ægean" civilization, for example, so that the layman, after reading his chapter on this subject, is in a position to appreciate any new essay which may appear upon it, while the lecturer or advanced student finds in this discussion of it suggestive material to freshen the memory, not to mention the value of M. Collignon's own contributions.

The present volume is divided into four books. In the first of these, "Les Origines," the prehistoric epoch of Greek sculpture is described, beginning with the most primitive plastic productions of Troy, Cyprus, and the islands of the Archipelago, and continuing through the Mykenean, with sufficiently detailed accounts of the discoveries at Mykenæ, Tiryns, Vaphio, and the other centres of this civilization; then the period in which the influence of the Orient was strong, the art of the age of Homer; and finally the beginnings of plastic types, the work of the period when the Greek instinct was beginning to assert itself. To those who have been unable to follow the advances made in our knowledge of Greek art during the last ten years, no part of the volume will be more valuable than this first book, or more convincing of the necessity of a successor to Mrs. Mitchell's History, much of the material here described being still unknown when she wrote. We regret, by the way, to note that M. Collignon alludes to her book as an English production, the number of workers in this field which America has contributed being still too few to make us indifferent to the loss of credit for any one of them.

In the following books, "Les Primitifs," "L'Archaïsme avancé," and "L'Époque des grands maîtres du Vème siècle," M. Collignon carries us from the rude works of the early island and Attic schools through that wonderful period of rapid development which culminated in the Parthenon. Though some account of Pheidias is given, the sculptures of the Parthenon, with the exception of the colossal Athena, are left for the next volume. There are chapters on the sculptures of Olympia, on Myron, and on Polykleitos. As to the Olympian pediment figures, M. Collignon judiciously refrains from entering into the discussion of their arrangement, as being a question "toujours pendante" and impossible of absolute determination at present; though, in regard to the eastern pediment, he admits that he prefers the order adopted by Treu to that of Curtius. In his description of these and all other sculptures it is refreshing to find that warm appreciation of them as works of art, and not merely archæological dry-bones, which distinguishes French archæologists from their German colleagues and makes their writings pleasant as well as profitable reading. Pressure of space prevents our discussing the details of the volume or giving it more than this general description, but we welcome it cordially as a valuable contribution to the literature of the subject, and we hope we may see the completed work translated into English at no distant day. The illustrations are quite up to the standard of the house from which they come, and we notice as an agreeable innovation in popular books on Greek sculpture the colored reproductions of the archaic statues found on the Acropolis. Though inferior to the German plates of the same figures in the 'Antike Denkmäler,' they serve their purpose satisfactorily in enforcing the existence of one element in the original effect of Greek sculpture which we are too apt to overlook.

M. Reinach's new book will appeal more to specialists. Last year we had occasion to call attention to the excellent service he had rendered in republishing Millin's and Millingen's unwieldy folios on Greek vases, in a convenient form and with editorial notes which made modern books of them. He has continued his work in this direction by bringing out the 'Antiquités du Bosphore Cimmérien' in the same convenient quarto form, and with a thoroughness of editorial revision which must excite admiration not less than gratitude among those who have occasion to consult the book. The original of the 'Antiquités' is probably the most inaccessible of all archæological books, in spite of its great value to students. It was published in 1854, by the order and at the expense of the Czar, to illustrate the unparalleled discoveries of Greek jewelry, pottery, and other minor arts which had recently been made in the Crimea. In the preparation of the three folio volumes, no expense was spared to make the illustrations worthy of the originals; but the edition was limited to two hundred copies, none of which were placed upon the market. One hundred were distributed among the leading libraries of the world, and the rest, we believe, sent as presents to societies and individuals whom the Czar chose to honor in this manner. As a result, it has been almost impossible to purchase a copy, at whatever price, and the number of public libraries possessing the book is naturally very limited, especially in this country. M. Reinach says that as much as 2,000 francs has been given for one copy, and he knows of but six in Paris, four of which are in the large libraries. Consequently the obligation under which he would have placed students merely by reproducing this "rarissimo" in a form and at a price which place it within reach of all, would be great in any case, but he has done more. He has subjected the text to a careful editorial sifting, retaining for his volume only so much of the original as is of permanent value, and bringing

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the subject-matter of this up to date with his own notes and references.

As a supplement, he has added a complete and minute index to the *Comptes Rendus*—the periodical work in which the publication of the Greek treasures of the Ermitage was continued from 1859 to 1881—an achievement of which he may well be proud, for it constitutes a compendium, like Overbeck's 'Schriftquellen' or Brunn's 'Griechische Künstler,' which no archæologist can afford to be without. Stephani, the editor of the *Comptes Rendus*—or we might more properly say their author—was, to use M. Reinach's words, "un prodige d'érudition," but with learning as unwieldy as it was colossal, his essays being full of enormous digressions on topics remotely connected with the subject in hand. In his description of the representation on a vase, the presence of some unusual bit of ornament or jewelry on a figure was sufficient to call a halt while he went into an interminable disquisition upon all other known examples of the same or a kindred kind; and because one of the fragments of Greek textiles from the Crimea was decorated with a b rder, his account of it branched off into a thesis, with a classified list, on all the types of Greek borders and patterns to be found among all the surviving monuments of Greek art. With an index this encyclopædic knowledge is of inestimable value by way of reference, whereas, unindexed, the essays have remained unread, unless by the very patient. It is not too much to say, therefore, that in this work M. Reinach has built a monument to the Russian scholar.

We must confess to a feeling of disappointment that the illustrations have not resulted more successfully. In this respect the book is decidedly inferior to M. Reinach's former one. Piccard was unquestionably the most exquisite draughtsman and engraver ever called upon for archæological work. From personal observation we can testify to the fidelity with which he rendered the originals in the Ermitage, and the delicacy and spirit of his drawings alone make the Russian publications a delight to the lover of art, whether archæologist or not. This very delicacy has apparently prevented their successful reproduction. The fault is not in the reduction, which still remains clear enough, but the lines have lost their subtlety, many of them appear feeble and broken; and the photographic process to which it has been necessary to have recourse has reproduced the grain and imperfections of the paper, sometimes with unpleasant prominence. It also seems a pity that the chromolithographs of the original work should not have been reproduced in color—at least the most important of them. As it is, with these as with the line-drawings, the facts are there, but the spirit is gone; and while archæological students will find M. Reinach's edition an indispensable addition to their book-shelves, our public libraries ought not to relax their endeavors to acquire the original.

Mr. Murray's 'Handbook of Greek Archæology' labors under the disadvantage of all manuals which try to get too much into a limited space. We have before this expressed our inability to comprehend the purpose served by these crowded handbooks which appear in constantly increasing numbers. They are necessarily so condensed that the beginner in the study of ancient art gets but a bewildering impression of names and facts from them; the attractiveness of the subject is entirely lost to him, whereas to the more advanced student the material is already familiar, and he has therefore no need of such books. Mr. Murray's present volume is no exception to the rule. Had he given the same amount of space and labor to any one of the seven branches of Greek art of which he here attempts to summarize the history, he might have produced a manual of extreme value, alike to beginner and specialist, by expanding his subject so as to bring out its interest, and treating it with a thoroughness—possible within the size of this volume—which would have made it a useful work of reference. However, this he has not chosen to do, and his book must be judged by what it is. The keynote of his purpose may be found in a sentence in the preface, in which he says that "we have now a large body of accepted truth to which we can refer as such without at every step citing a mass of facts in support of it." The aim of his book is to put this "accepted truth" before the reader, and while this is done as a rule in a conservative spirit, the principle is a dangerous one, in the present state of our knowledge, inasmuch as there must inevitably be some doctrines which, though they appear indisputable to the author, have not yet been accepted by everybody; and, moreover, his desire to state them without citing too many authorities sometimes leads him to render scant justice to the men who first published these "accepted truths," and with whose names it seems to us highly desirable that the beginner should become familiar in connection with the subject. Such men are, for example, Prof. Ramsay and Mr. Flinders Petrie, who have made most valuable contributions to our knowledge of the early civilization of Greece. Although Mr. Murray favors the theory of the former as to the date of the Lions of Mykenæ (p. 178), he does not credit him with it, and Mr. Petrie is disposed of in a foot-note. But the most glaring omission of this nature is in the chapter on Terracottas, which contains no allusion to M. Pottier's little manual on the subject, though it is by far the best handbook on this branch of Greek art that has yet appeared, and should be brought to the notice of all students or lovers of the art.

On the whole, however, Mr. Murray's book, although dry in style, treats its subject carefully and contains a valuable lot of information in a compressed form. If we must have these abridgments of the whole range of Greek art, this is certainly to be recommended as one of the most trustworthy that we have yet seen.

ROGERS'S INDUSTRIAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

The Industrial and Commercial History of England: Lectures delivered to the University of Oxford by the late James E. Thorold Rogers. Edited by his son, Arthur G. L. Rogers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892.

It was said, we believe, of Sir Humphry Davy that he made great discoveries in chemistry by examining what previous experimenters had thrown away, and a somewhat similar judgment might be passed upon the work of the lamented author of these lectures. Political economy as a science requires very broad generalizations, which, however true in the main, are subject to important limitations and exceptions. The determination of the relative influence of custom and competition in fixing both rents and wages has been a field especially fruitful in results of this kind, and by his extensive and minute investigations among mediæval records Prof. Rogers succeeded in bringing to light facts that have led to some important modifications of economic doctrine. It may be that he exaggerated the importance of his discoveries—we are unable to follow him in his view that he had exploded Ricardo's theory of rent by declaring that rent is the outcome of profits, not prices. But this is to be expected of discoverers in general; and the fact that things look larger to him who fixes his whole attention upon them does not extinguish our gratitude to him for making us acquainted with their existence.

It may seem surprising that, as we are informed in the preface, the audience to which these lectures were delivered consisted of about a dozen men, although they were free to all members of the University. The topics discussed are those concerning which the present generation is much troubled, and the erudition of the lecturer was as extensive as it was unique. He illustrated Bacon's maxim that much reading maketh a full man, and the glimpses which he offers into the mysterious life of past ages are often fascinating in their suggestiveness. But to a great extent these lectures consist of material that has appeared in the published works of the author, they contain many repetitions and a good deal of padding, and they are extremely discursive. They are the talk of an antiquary, full of recondite information, poured forth as it rises in the memory, guided by the association of contiguity rather than by any definite plan. Moreover, it must be admitted that, like many other antiquaries, Prof. Rogers was not free from a certain opinionated acerbity. The almost exclusive possession of knowledge of a certain kind seems to lead men to mistake their special superiority for a general one, rendering them not only impatient of criticism, but intolerant of any difference of opinion.

Thus, Prof. Rogers, disliking the expression that men are the creatures of circumstances, calls those who use it fools and poltroons. This is nearly as bad as Adair's story of his first meeting with Burke, when he unfortunately asked that statesman some question concerning the wild parts of Ireland, and got the answer, "You are a fool and a blockhead. There are no wild parts in Ireland." In Prof. Rogers's case this intemperate language occurs so frequently that we fear that it is a sign of hastiness of judgment. We are quite aware that this charge is, under the circumstances, a very serious one to make. Prof. Rogers occupied the position of an expert witness. He testified as to the existence of facts which were and must always remain inaccessible to most people. He visited unexplored regions, and his hearers were absolutely dependent upon his report as to what he had seen. It is indispensable in such cases that there should be accurate and intelligent observation, careful verification, and conscientious recognition of the evidence against as well as in favor of proposed explanations and theories. If we feel that we can depend upon the presence of these conditions, we listen to the witness as to an inspired prophet. If we find that these conditions are not observed in any instance, our confidence is gone; and suspicion, once aroused as to a single particular, beclouds the whole of the evidence. It is to such cases that the legal maxim, *Falsus in uno, falsus in omnibus*, applies, not as expressing a fact, but as warning us of a possibility.

In order to test the credibility of Prof. Rogers as an expert, we have selected certain statements that fall within the ken of American readers, although in making them to an English audience Prof. Rogers must have been aware that they would be taken upon his au-

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thority. He is accumulating evidence to show the effect upon cultivation of fixed tenure of land, and mentions as one fact that "the soil of New England is exceedingly sterile as a rule, but the hedges are full of peach trees." We leave it to our readers to judge if the English listener would be led to form a true mental picture of the region in question. Prof. Rogers, we may add, had visited New England, and, we believe, more than once.

If his recollection of what his eyes had seen is not altogether trustworthy, what shall we say of his report of what his ears had heard? Norwich, he tells us, was the principal town in the early history of Connecticut, and in the meadows which lie by its river was the meeting-place of the Six Nations. Statements like this imply a good deal more inaccuracy than they express. The matters involved may be intrinsically of little importance, but when we find an author who is so dictatorial in his language, and so cocksure in his manner, guilty of carelessness of this kind, our confidence is severely shaken. Another instance of inaccuracy is to be found in the statement that the Bank Act of 1844 "has been imitated by no other civilized community." The peculiarity of that act consisted in its separation of the banking from the issue department, and this principle was adopted by the State of New York, and again by the United States in its National Bank Act. Strictly speaking, it may be maintained that this was not an imitation of the English act, for the New York statute was passed in 1838, and the United States statute was an imitation of that of New York. But the principle had been announced in England by Mr. Lloyd before it was adopted in New York, and we apprehend that Prof. Rogers's language would be likely to mislead an English listener as to the extent to which the characteristic features of the Act of 1844 prevail.

Although we are thus admonished that it is not safe to follow Prof. Rogers blindly, it would be unjust to make no reference to the numberless points upon which his lectures throw light. His treatment of economic subjects is so broad, and his knowledge really so extensive, that it is impossible to listen to him without profit, and, in spite of the harshness and abruptness of his style, without pleasure. His historical illustrations continually remind us of the importance of scrutinizing our stock of theories and modifying our cherished generalizations. The following passage from his account of the history of the Bank of England illustrates the power of his method:

> "To me the fall of near 30 per cent. [in the Bank stock] in 1710, consequent upon the election of the Tory Parliament and the establishment of a Tory Government, . . . is worth a thousand guesses at the motives of Swift and Atterbury, Harley and St. John, Harcourt and Masham, and the whole procession of dim shadows which pass over the stage of history at this age. And similarly I am more instructed by the rise of 10 per cent. at the death of Anne than I am at the picture of the Whig peers pressing into the council chamber as Anne was in her last lethargy, and forcing from her almost unconscious hand the nomination of Shrewsbury to the office of Treasurer, and the repudiation of the Pretender and his hopes. . . . To my mind, the English Constitution has been as much guarded and developed in Grocers' Hall and Threadneedle Street as in the Palace of Westminster."

Upon the whole there is so much of shrewd and suggestive observation in the book that it is to be recommended, but with the caution that the author's opinions are not always to be accepted without question. If his knowledge is not always accurate, he at least causes his readers to examine the accuracy of their own—a service which is not to be underrated.

SUGGESTION AND FICTION.

Die Suggestion und die Dichtung: Gutachten über Suggestion und Hypnose. Herausgegeben von Karl Emil Franzos. Zweite Auflage. Berlin: F. Fontane & Co. 1892. Small 8vo, pp. 129.

THE youthful but vigorous science of Hypnotism emerged some fifteen years ago from obscurity and the odium of charlatanism into the clear light of scientific research and academic recognition. Within this time it has deeply influenced medical practice; has propounded new problems for the jurist and the moralist; has furnished the experimental psychologist with a new method of research; requires a bibliography of more than a thousand numbers to index the recent contributions to its study; and now threatens to disturb the prevalent conceptions of the relation of man to man, in the delineation of which the novelist and the poet find their material and their *motif*. The distinguished editor of *Deutsche Dichtung* fears that this influence may not be altogether wholesome; that the discoveries of science may be falsely and prematurely applied in the realm of fiction. He is apprehensive, too, that, among so many new and startling results, there may be some more novel than true; that the facts may have been distorted by the nebula of exaggeration, misinterpretation, ignorance, and bias by which science is so often surrounded. Moreover, strongly suspecting that the modern "medicated novel," as Dr. Holmes calls it, in which hypnotism and allied states play so large a part, diverges as much from scientific accuracy as it does from artistic truth and propriety, he has appealed to the most eminent physiologists and psychiatrists of Germany and Austria, asking for an expression of opinion upon the value of hypnotism, and in particular upon its bearings upon the ever vital issues of free-will and responsibility. These opinions—from Professors Helmholtz, DuBois-Reymond, Preyer, Mendel, Jolly, and Eulenberg of Berlin; from Krafft-Ebbing, Exner, Meynert, Nothnagel, and Kahler of Vienna; from Forel of Zurich; from Binswanger of Jena; from Fuchs of Bonn; from Hirt of Breslau—are here collected. Within a month after publication they passed into a second edition.

To give definiteness to his inquiry, Herr Franzos cites three cases reported in the daily press as of actual occurrence, and asks whether science regards them as true and recognizes suggestion, with or without hypnotism, as an adequate explanation of the extraordinary personal influence upon which the tales turn. The first of these alleged incidents tells of a young artist, the protégé of a millionaire and his wife, whom he accompanies to their villa near Florence. He there falls in love with a fair member of his craft and is accepted. He becomes possessed with the idea of founding a grand institute for the advancement of art, and is covetous of his benefactor's wealth for this purpose. The latter is suddenly called away on business, and a few hours thereafter the young artist, despite his betrothal, persuades his benefactor's wife to elope with him to Rome. The artist is there discovered by the husband, is arrested, confined in an asylum, and finally released. His first thought is to find the lady of wealth, over whom he is confident that he possesses unusual powers. Failing in this, he attempts suicide, but recovers. The lady, who remembered nothing of her flight to Rome, is informed of what has happened and consents to a divorce. She thus comes into possession of her own property, and her first act is to endow an art institute.

The second case is that of a young man who gains a mysterious power over an old bookbinder, to whom he was formerly apprenticed, and whose rival he has now become. Through the unexpressed wishes of the young man, aided by potent glances upon casual meetings, the bookbinder is forced to commit a variety of foolish and unseemly acts, finally necessitating his removal to another town.

The third case is similar. A young man, upon the plea of needing funds to perfect some invention, swindles his employer of a considerable sum of money. He is convicted, and, after serving his sentence, again passes forged papers into his former employer's hands. At the trial he at first admits his guilt, but suddenly claims that he wrote the papers simply to practise his handwriting, that the plaintiff was aware of this, and knowingly took them into his possession. The plaintiff is recalled, and, in contradiction to his former testimony, corroborates the defendant's new version of the transaction. The story, like the preceding one, involves the direct transference of thought from one mind to another, and the control by this means of another's actions and utterances.

How far, Herr Franzos asks, does science corroborate such tales? in what respect must the doctrine of free-will be modified to accord with new discoveries? in what way may writers of fiction utilize such incidents and remain true to fact?

To expect unanimity among sixteen German professors upon such a question, is to presume for the German professor as well as for present science an approximation to Utopian harmony that is hardly warranted by past experience; and yet it is possible in some respects to outline the tenor of these replies without injustice to individual differences. All are agreed that the incidents as told involve gross exaggeration and misrepresentation, and that an explanation of what really occurred would be possible only after the minutest details of personnel and incident had been supplied; and if a definite "yes" or "no" be required, the verdict must be that these tales and their kind are neither true nor verisimilar. The writer of fiction who introduces hypnotism into his work in this guise and with such accompaniments diverges very far from legitimate realism. Thought transference, or telepathy, is pronounced by all not proven, by some impossible; while a few are tempted to use quite unparliamentary epithets in their characterization.

At this point the differences of opinion begin. The most unfavorable opinion is that of Prof. Fuchs, who regards the entire hypnotic movement as pernicious, and those who act as "subjects" as seekers of notoriety and victims of the passion of deception; he would like to see university professors and not hysterical women hypnotized. Prof. Nothnagel is opposed to the popularization of hypnotism and is inclined to be suspicious of its results. The others clearly indicate their belief in the reality of the hypnotic condition and the importance of studying it. A considerable number regard the state as pathological, though equally many hold that persons in normal health are hypnotizable. All who touch upon the point are agreed that no one can be hypnotized without his knowledge, and most would add "consent"; and this is an additional reason for refusing credence to the tales above told. Further than this, the various contributors under-

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stand the inquiry so differently, commenting upon the points in which they are personally most interested, that any statistical analysis of their opinions becomes impossible. There are, however, certain general impressions which the volume leaves and which may be noted.

The two phenomena most important to the issue raised by Herr Franzos are the post-hypnotic suggestion and the criminal suggestion. The former term stands for the fact that suggestions given during the hypnotic state may be carried out after waking while the subject is in a normal condition. The subject forgets the source of the impulse to do the suggested deed, and so accepts it as his own. The suggestion may be entirely proper, or have no moral significance, but it may also be criminal in intent, and thus apparently deprive a responsible agent of his responsibility. This possibility naturally takes deep hold upon the novelist and the reading public, and its discussion both from a legal and a moral point of view can hardly be much longer postponed. Criminal suggestions during the hypnotic state have been given, but different experimenters are not agreed upon their interpretation of the facts. Some hold that the subject appreciates that it is a "laboratory crime" that he is committing, while others hold that it is dead earnest. It is certainly true that the subject is not a mere automaton; his character and morality are not annihilated, and yet his power of resistance is weakened. Just how far this increases the possibilities of suggested crime it is difficult to say; but it is important not to lose sight of the fact that suggestibility, like responsibility, is of all kinds and degrees, and that the action of hypnotic suggestion is not so far different from that of the environment and other recognized influences as one is apt to imagine.

The novelist must remember that in addition to the ordinarily recognized and patent factors by which conduct is influenced and character formed, there are many others, subtle, unconscious, and difficult of description, but no less real and potent; he must remember that both sorts of influences differ widely in the kind and degree of their effects, passing by imperceptible gradations into the abnormal; and finally he will do well to bear in mind that no good can result from the indiscriminate introduction of states and phenomena that arise in unusual and quasi-morbid circumstances, into the everyday lives of everyday people.

This seems to be the outcome of Herr Franzos's inquiry. Nothing but confusion results from explaining a phenomenon by calling it hypnotism or suggestion unless these terms be used with an adequate consideration of the facts established by scientific research, and not with the loose and meaningless connotation which they bear to the popular mind. Here, as everywhere, mental health depends upon the power of drawing distinctions, of absorbing the actual and vital while rejecting the unreal and parasitical. The study of hypnotism is doubtless destined to add to our insight into man and his mental operations, but not by loose generalizations and sensational applications of dimly suspected truths.

Le Choléra, ses causes, moyens de s'en préserver. Par le Dr. G. Daremberg. Paris: Rueff & Cie. 1892.

THE savagery that has lately disgraced our shores, and the shot-gun quarantines from time to time established against epidemic disease, are barbaric expressions of the natural dread of illness, and especially of the fear when the approach of a pandemic threatens general desolation. Fortunately, those rude outbreaks are but the uncouth and cruel illustrations of a common feeling that finds a more intelligent and profitable expression in preventive medicine. This science is aggressive. Its pickets have long been in the enemy's front, and now it has fairly established permanent outposts, here and there, within his former lines. And although occasional errors are committed and untenable positions have to be vacated, the progress, one decade with another, is steady and positive. This little book is the very latest and one of the most lucid and trustworthy of the despatches sent back from the advance guard. Its author is well known and respected among the leaders of science, and it contains material collected as late as August, 1892. Although written especially for French conditions, its intelligence and its warnings are full of value to us.

The preface describes it truly as a work of practical hygiene, representing researches and opinions in relation to cholera control originally presented to scientific bodies and now set forth in abstract for the benefit of municipal authorities, upon whom rests the possibility of perpetuating or abolishing "the unhygienic horrors in the midst of which we live without protest." But as, particularly with us, laws and regulations unsupported by popular opinion can be enforced with difficulty, such studies should be taken to heart by every intelligent citizen, who, in turn, should become a propagandist of the gospel of sanitation.

It is unnecessary to describe anew the march of the fierce epidemics that during the past three score years have laid waste both hemispheres. It is now clearly shown that they follow the lines of human intercourse, at least in Europe and America. Cholera in India is a problem by itself. If there is no transportation of persons and things, there will be no spread of cholera. But must every case in Europe proceed from a recent preëxisting case? Leaving out of sight the views of a few who find no difficulty in believing that, given a long succession of favorable conditions, the disease may arise, let us say, in the delta of the Amazon or of the Mississippi, as well as in that of the Ganges, or that by natural evolution a harmless microbe may become virulent, Dr. Daremberg maintains that the cholera cause, once deposited in the soil, may lie dormant but vital to renew its activity after a term of years. As a matter of fact he announces that the existing Parisian epidemic has no relation to the present Russian and North German disease, whose immediate connection with India may be traced by a chain of well-defined links. This very grave assertion will be referred to later.

Although not yet accepted by some excellent Indian authorities, we may assume with the writer that the comma bacillus of Koch holds a causal relation to epidemic cholera. Forewarned as to the habits of that microbe, we may forearm ourselves against its effects. It is pretty certain that it withstands all natural cold; that boiling (in water) will destroy it; that it multiplies in ordinary drinking-water with variable rapidity; that it survives, at least for a time, in the soil; that, wet or dry, it may cling to any article it touches, preserving a prolonged vitality, thus making clothing, food, the dust of the house or of the street, as well as unclean hands and utensils, mediums of infection. Just how long it may survive when dried by the forces of nature is yet undetermined.

Ever since Dr. Snow's experiment with the handle of the cholera pump, no English-speaking student has doubted that water may be a vehicle. Concerning the earth, there have been two schools, and, notwithstanding Pettenkofer's ground-water theory, the prevailing belief has been that the pathogenic bacteria are destroyed either in conflict with other microbes or by the oxygen in the upper layers of the soil. But our author is a strenuous advocate of their prolonged vitality within the earth, so that, when brought to the surface by turning up the soil or by capillarity, and mingled with the dust, they, like the bacilli of tubercle, are ready to convey their special poison. He insists, therefore, that sewage-irrigation farms which have received choleraic discharges not disinfected, are constant menaces to the public health, and that the great farm of Gennevilliers is responsible for much of the special disease of Paris. Disinfected discharges are of course harmless. This challenge from such authority must be met by renewed sanitary investigation before such farms can be safely advised; for it follows that if the cholera bacilli preserve their vitality, they may attach themselves to such vegetables as are eaten raw as well as mingle with the dust and so with the atmosphere.

But what is of more immediate popular interest is the avoidance of the disease when it is at hand. Land quarantine on a large scale has no value, and only creates a false sense of security. Quarantine by sea that does not involve complete disinfection, is useless as to the country to be protected and destructive to the voyagers. A quarantine of observation with complete disinfection of vessel, passengers, and freight, involves short time and moderate expense and is sufficient. The station at the mouth of the Mississippi is cited as a typical example of intelligent prevention. Except as to the arrangements for observing suspected passengers, it has always been supposed that the facilities for disinfection at New York were adequate to prevent the entrance of an epidemic here.

The destruction of the cholera germ itself depends upon its inability to withstand 212 degrees F., to live in an acid medium, or to survive certain other germicides, the most important of which is corrosive sublimate. Heat and acids are as serviceable for private families as for the public. It was long ago published as an empirical fact that acid drinks guard against cholera, although the guard may be forced. But this was neither generally known nor believed. It has now been determined by exact experiment that very slightly acidulated fluids kill the comma bacillus, and the frequent immunity of well-fed persons of good digestion appears to rest upon the natural acidity of the gastric secretions. Certainly, as herein advised, the habitual use of about six grains of citric acid to a pint of water, as an ordinary drink in the presence of cholera, not only destroys stray bacilli in the water itself, but fortifies the stomach against attack in that direction. Wherever groups of people work together, the management should supply them with this cheap and pleasant beverage. A very dilute mineral acid has the same good effect.

Two popular fallacies are disposed of here. Alcohol, the broken staff upon which so many lean in danger, predisposes the stomach to the reception of the bacilli. Opium, sought for the relief of pain, is not disengaged through the inflamed kidneys, and hastens the end. Boiled water drunk soon after boiling is safe, but if exposed it may serve to nourish germs accidentally introduced. One can never be

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sure of ice. Porcelain filters daily and scrupulously brushed with acidulated water may be depended upon. All others either become clogged or do not detain the poison. Alum, whose ability to clarify muddy (alluvial) water has long been known, is here announced as a germicide also. It is claimed that three grains agitated through a quart of water will not only leave it clear at the end of twenty-four hours, but also free from germs (*ne contient plus aucun microbe*). Preventive "vaccination"—an odious word as applied to counter inoculation—by very recent experiments seems a preventive, but this epidemic will pass before that can be popularized. Very little space is given to treatment, properly enough in a book on prevention. What is suggested looks to the slaughter of the invading bacilli and to replenishing the body-fluids drained in the profuse discharges. That does not seem enough. Bacilli may be the cause, excessive outpourings are a part of the consequence, but the disease proper is something else, probably a derangement of the organic nervous system.

But to be clean, to be clean, to be clean, is the burden of the book. Cleanse the mouth, the nose, the skin, and above all, the hands, and use for this purpose as well as for drinking only disinfected water. Keep the body warm and well nourished. Cut short the preliminary painless diarrhœa. Be always scrupulously clean, and for the sake of others disinfect all emitted fluids. For its manner and inspiration the book itself should be consulted, and its immediate translation into English would be to the popular good.

Kolokotronis, the Klepht and the Warrior. Sixty Years of Peril and Daring: An Autobiography. Translated from the Greek with introduction and notes by Mrs. Edmonds, with a preface by J. Gennadius. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1892.

THE Life of Theodore Kolokotronis, told by himself to his friend George Tertzetis, reads like a modernized narrative from the 'Iliad.' It gives a vivid history of the Greek War of Independence from the point of view of one of its heroes and chief actors. Although most personal narratives err on the score of partisanship, and are generally more or less tinged with egotism (and this is no exception to the rule), we are told by Mr. Gennadius in his preface that, on the publication of these reminiscences (which took place firstly in 1846 privately, and subsequently in their entirety in 1852, at which time many of the fellow-combatants of Kolokotronis were still living), no material contradictions were called forth—only a few emendations as to incidents of slight importance—and that no one has ever questioned the exact veracity of his part in the war. Those who are not thoroughly cognizant of the history of Greece at the moment of this struggle will find some difficulty in grasping the import of much of the story. The old warrior never had any intention of furnishing material for a book. He could read, and it is said that he thought education would do more for Greece after it became a kingdom than the sabres of its pallikars; but he could not even write beyond scratching his own signature, so it was only at the repeated urging of his friend that he consented to dictate his memoirs. This he did in the simple idiom of the Greek mountaineer, and Tertzetis had the good taste to change nothing. He did not even add any supplementary notes, so that, as the narrator presupposes a knowledge of the events he refers to, and does not lose time by explanations, the uninitiated reader remains unenlightened. This is decidedly unfortunate in a work which is evidently mainly intended for boys, belonging as it does to the Adventure Series.

Mrs. Edmonds has in a measure supplemented this defect by giving us an historical sketch of the klephts, this term meaning the free mountaineers who carry on open warfare against their oppressors, and not brigands whose object is plunder. After the fall of Constantinople in 1453, the mountains of Olympus, Pindus, Pelion, and Agrapha became gradually peopled by men who would not submit to Ottoman rule; they occupied the mountain fastnesses, and were beyond the power of the Turk. The rough, untrammelled life they led had a great attraction for adventurous spirits, and their numbers continued to increase. The attitude the klephts maintained with regard to the Ottoman Government was encouraged by the Venetians, who held maritime ports in their neighborhood, and who called the klephts to their aid when they found it necessary to fight against the Turk. After these combats many of them returned to their mountain homes, while others, hoping for some fresh opportunity of fighting the common enemy, remained in the Venetian service. The Porte also, on her side, enrolled as many klephts and Greeks as she could persuade to fight for her; and during the reign of Solyman the Magnificent, between 1534 and 1537, terms were offered to the mountain people which they could accept without feeling they had offered submission. Ibrahim, the Grand Vizier of Solyman, a man of great intelligence, favorably disposed towards the Christians, being himself of lowly Christian origin, divided Greece into fifteen districts, and appointed a Christian as captain or armatolos (a man at arms), whose function was to keep order on the highways and to repress outrages through his province. In 1627, Amurath, fearing the armatoli were getting too powerful, destroyed all their forts on the defiles and put Ottomans in their posts. The armatoli on this formed themselves into a body and revenged themselves on the Turks who had been put in their places by killing them and ravaging the district. The Greek historian Sathas says: "On this account they first received the name of klephts, from κλέπτειν—to steal or rob—by which name they were ever afterwards known to the outside world."

The Turks in vain sought by every means to check their deeds of violence, but, every measure failing, they were obliged to issue a new firman reinstating them as guardians of the roads, charged also to collect taxes on flocks. They were thus allowed the possession of the hills on condition of the payment of a small tribute and of defending the country against Albanian brigands. For this purpose they were enrolled as armatoli, *i.e.*, the captain of each band was an armatolos, and the men received the name of pallikars (from πάλλομαι, I bound or leap), and this term still remains to designate a brave warrior. The companies of armatoli were entirely composed of Christians; no Turk could ever be enrolled among them. The beneficent effect of this arrangement was soon felt by the dwellers on the plains, who had previously been unable to protect their flocks and lands. Even then many of the fiercest klephts would not hear of treating with the Turk, and held their mountain heights, governing their districts in their own way, regardless of pasha or bey. But the armatoli and the klephts were continually exchanging rôles, it would seem, for the Turks found it to their interest to entice the fiercest into their service, while, on the other hand, the armatoli sometimes preferred the freer, more untrammelled life of the klepht. A very significant difference in their costume was that the klephts wore a long cord wound round their waists and tied in front, to serve them to bind their captives with; otherwise they were dressed alike in fustanella, with vests adorned with silver buttons, according to their means, and rich embroideries on jackets and greaves. These wild mountaineers had necessarily to come down from the barren crags on which they lived to plunder, in order to live; and they did not hesitate to pillage their Greek compatriots when they had any grudge against them; they especially preyed on tax-gatherers, wealthy prelates, and the monasteries. Their animosity against the monks was on account of the latter never giving them assistance in time of need, from obsequiousness to the Turk; otherwise, like all Greeks, they were strictly attached to the forms of the orthodox faith, giving offerings to the saints and invoking God's blessing on the success of their arms on every perilous adventure. They would never lay hands on the vessels of the sanctuary, although they had no scruples as to plundering monks. Mrs. Edmonds also tells us how temperate and chaste the klephts were. She goes on to describe the many risings which took place before 1821, mostly miserable failures, but always instigated by klephts to liberate their country from the intolerable oppressions and persecutions they were enduring under Turkish rule.

Kolokotronis came of a family of klephts who had held their own against the Turks for three hundred years. The revolt of the Morea, in which his father had taken part, was just suppressed when he was born under a tree on the hills of Rama in Messenia, in 1770. Already an orphan at twelve years old, he was bringing a load of wood to sell for his mother at Tripolitza, when he was met by a Turk, who gave him a beating. This indignity so enraged him that he bought himself a sword with the price of the wood and vowed vengeance on the oppressor of his country. His very name, and the traditions of his family, must also have opened this path to him. When only sixteen, the Porte gave orders that the whole clan of Kolokotronis should be extirpated, and we read that thirty-six of Theodore's brothers, cousins, and relatives, and one hundred and fifty followers were butchered in this struggle; but, notwithstanding this, Theodore had himself recognized as chief of the armatoli of Megalopolis. He had the year following to fly to Zante on account of a conspiracy against him. We have not space to describe his adventurous career, so full of thrilling crises. At one moment the people of the Morea wished to proclaim him their king, at another he was condemned to death. He seems to have met all these variations of fortune with indomitable courage, having always the good of his fatherland as the aim before which all personal affections and ambitions were sacrificed. This is the trait which strikes one all through the autobiography as the dominant one, and it is at least gratifying to the reader to learn that the first act of King Otho, on attaining his majority, was to release Kolokotronis from prison, and that for ten years he lived in Athens, enjoying the high esteem of his countrymen, who regarded him as the chief factor in their war of independence.

The illustrations are among the worst we have seen in any recent book.

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Sohm's Institutes of Roman Law. Translated by James C. Ledlie, of the Middle Temple and of Lincoln College, Oxford, with an introductory essay by Dr. Erwin Grueber, Reader in Roman Law. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

PROF. RUDOLPH SOHM of Leipzig is an acknowledged authority on Roman Law; his book, in so far as it treats of the internal development of that law from its rude beginnings to the days of Justinian, fills worthily the place which Hugo's utterly unreadable treatise occupied, for want of anything better, at the beginning of the century. Grueber's essay refers to the study and application of the Roman Law from the days of Accursius at Bologna to the present time, in Italy, France, and Germany, and does not aid us in understanding or appreciating Sohm's great work. Throughout the latter so much room is given to the growth and change of law—Justinian's legislation being never expounded except as the final outcome of a slow and gradual development—that one might prefer to call it Sohm's History of the Evolution of Roman Law. We find everywhere, whether the law of persons or of things, whether obligations arising from contract or from tort, whether rights or remedies are discussed, the same progress from the compound of savagery and of helpless formalism which constitutes the old Jus Quiritium, and is left almost intact by the Twelve Tables, to the polished and world-embracing body of equitable rules making up the Corpus Juris Civilis of the later Empire, which Justinian at last by his 'Novellæ' freed from all remnants of unreason and of harshness. This progress is shown to have taken on all the modes pointed out by Sir Henry Maine in his 'Ancient Law'—fiction, equity, and statute. The great defect of Maine's work is the scantiness of illustration. Were it to be published with Sohm's 'Institutes' broken up into copious notes, it would, at least to the thinking lawyer, be most interesting reading.

Prof. Sohm himself sometimes speaks in a footnote of some bizarre or harsh rule in old German law, such as it existed before the Civil Law was introduced early in the sixteenth century, and points out its analogy to the rude customs of the earlier days of Rome; but he cannot trace the parallel development of the two systems, for Germany, when it became philosophic and civilized, threw away the bulk of its own jurisprudence instead of developing and improving it, so as to conform it to modern wants. And here, we think, the translator, Mr. Ledlie, has allowed a great opportunity to slip. An English lawyer has material for comparison which the German lawyer lacks. Sir Henry Maine evidently had the progress of both English and Roman Law in his mind when he sketched the progress of law in his painfully general way, relying upon the reader's ingenuity to fill up the canvas. As all Roman transfers of property started from the *mancipium*, to which soon the fictitious judgment known as *in jure cessio* was added, so in England all transfers of land began with livery of seizin and fine. As the Roman Law had its *obligatio verbis*, in which a consideration was not essential, so the English law has its sealed contract, "importing a consideration." In both systems under their later forms the consideration may be drawn into dispute. As the oldest Roman Law knew no mortgage other than in the form of an absolute sale, so the English mortgage is still a sale in form, but is now in effect pretty much like the *hypotheca* of the latest Roman Law. The analogy of the Roman prætor to the Chancellor, and of the judex to the common-law judge, was noticed by Gilbert in his 'Jus Prætorianum' a hundred and fifty years ago; the similarity of the *formula* to the English paper book (but for the conciseness of the former and the prolixity of the latter) is most striking. The helplessness of the early Roman judges, who could adjudge nothing but a sum of money, reminds us of the English action of trover; the late Imperial Constitutions, which provided for a restoration of the thing in dispute, did the same for Romans deprived of highly valued articles that the English Chancellor did for the owner of an heirloom in Pusey vs. Pusey. The older Roman Law for executing money judgments was cruel mainly from helplessness; and so was the English and even the American law at the beginning of this century. Men were imprisoned or outlawed merely because the simple idea of taking just enough of the debtor's property to pay the creditor's judgment was beyond the narrow formalism of George the Third's England, as it had been beyond that of Cæsar's or even of Hadrian's Rome.

In his introductory essay Dr. Grueber expresses the hope that the publication of Sohm's treatise in English will not "interfere with the present [English] system of instruction," which is "based immediately on the study of the Roman sources, *i. e.*, chiefly on the text of the Institutes of Gaius and Justinian." Sharing this hope, we add a brief review of the work that has been done of late years in England in the editing and translating of the texts of the Roman Law. Dr. Moyle's excellent version of the Justinian Institutes has reached a second edition. Moyle's command of contemporary literature is not so complete as that exhibited by Prof. Muirhead in his 'Roman Law,' but the translation is faithful and the notes are valuable. Poste's text and translation of Gaius has also reached a second edition; but his text is not so correct as that given by Muirhead in the latter's Gaius and Ulpian. Prof. Holland's text of the Justinian Institutes, "edited as a recension of the Institutes of Gaius," in which the passages borrowed from Gaius are distinguished by different type, enables the student at a glance to grasp the relations of the classical and the Justinian law. In this respect it serves the same purpose as the numerous Continental "Syntagmata"; but the latter have the advantage of giving a complete text of Gaius as well as of Justinian. Finally, Holland's and Shadwell's 'Select Titles from the Institutes of Justinian' furnish well-chosen material for more advanced reading.

The text editions of Muirhead and Moyle (supplemented by Mommsen's edition of Bruno's 'Fontes Juris Romani,' Lenel's 'Edictum Perpetuum,' and Mommsen's and Krüger's 'Corpus Juris Civilis'), with the treatises of Muirhead and Sohm, will be found to constitute an excellent working library for the study of the Roman Law. All that is now really needed is a good English book on Roman civil procedure. Will not the Clarendon Press, that has already done so much for English and American students, give them a translation of Wach's latest edition of Keller's 'Römischer Civil-Process'? The older English books, original or translated, can then be relegated to their proper place—the stack-rooms of our libraries.

Secret Service under Pitt. By W. J. Fitzpatrick, F. S. A. Longmans, Green & Co. 1892.

THE author of this portly volume claims a credit for diligent research which apparently is no more than his due. But his subject, which is the identification and the history of Irish spies employed under the Government of Pitt, while it may have an interest for Irish patriots, has little interest for any other class of readers. A Government threatened by conspiracy at home in concert with impending invasion from abroad will, of course, employ spies in its defence, and will look for them in the ranks of the conspirators. It is mournfully notorious that an Irish conspiracy has always in it a spy. The book contains, so far as we can see, no very startling revelation except in the case of the Franciscan Father Arthur O'Leary, whose sinister connection with the Government had already fallen under the notice of Mr. Lecky.

Father O'Leary was a brilliant and popular writer, who in pleading the Catholic cause took the line of moderation and national amity. If he was really a spy, or employed as a paid agent in the secret service of the Government, he must have played his part with consummate skill, for he died in the odor of the purest public virtue, and panegyric followed him beyond the grave. In the very year in which (if the charge now brought against his memory is true) he undertook "to get at the bottom of all secrets in which the Catholics were concerned," a gold medal was presented to him by the Cork Amicable Society, in which

"he was represented in the habit of his Order, crushing with his right foot the hydra of religious persecution, with his right hand opening the gates of the Temple of Concord, and with his left beckoning his countrymen (emblematically represented by the harp) to enter the sacred edifice forgetful of their prejudices against each other, while the genius of his country was represented with outstretched arms over his head, each bearing a crown, one of science, the other of victory."

Grattan said of O'Leary that if he did not know him to be a Christian clergyman, he would suppose him, from his writings, to be a philosopher of the Augustan age. The evidence adduced against O'Leary in this volume does not seem to us perfectly conclusive. There is a little doubt about the identity, the Christian name not being given in the incriminating documents, though Mr. Lecky puts this doubt aside. Apart from this, however, we should say nothing more is absolutely proved than that O'Leary was not so independent as he professed to be, and was possibly rather slippery in character. As a moderatist avowedly opposed to rebellion, he might naturally have intercourse with the members of the Government; and though it seems that he received, or was ready to receive, £100 for some service, the service is not specified, and it is somewhat harsh to assume that it was the service of a spy. At the same time, Mr. Fitzpatrick is able to state that Lord O'Hagan, who had kept O'Leary's portrait in his study and regarded O'Leary's writings as his political guide, mournfully admitted the force of the evidence.

It does not appear that Pitt himself soiled his fingers with this dirty work, though he must of course have been aware in a general way of what was going on. Whatever may have been his errors, he was, like his father, high-souled, and he would be sure to leave the reptile department to others. Mr. Fitzpatrick largely quotes and freely cites Mr. Froude, who is not so good an authority as Mr. Lecky, and the investigation into whose accuracy opens a wide but unfruitful field. However, the work will no doubt be interesting to Irish patriots, to some of whom it may at the same time read a salutary lesson.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, W. B. Gulf and Glacier; or, The Percivals in Alaska. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Bailey, L. H. The Horticulturist's Rule-Book. 2d ed. Rural Publishing Co.
Ball, B. W. The Merrimack River. Putnams. $2.
Barrett, C. R. B. Essex: Highways, Byways and Waterways. London: Lawrence & Bullen.
Chaffee, Frank. Bachelor Buttons. George M. Allen Co.
Checkley, Edwin. Natural Method of Physical Training. New ed. Brooklyn: W. C. Bryant & Co.
Cook, Prof. A. S. The Art of Poetry: The Poetical Treatises of Horace, Vida and Boileau. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Daudet, A. L'Evangéliste. Chicago: F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Dods, Rev. Marcus. The Gospel of St. John. Vol. 2. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Dumas, A. Nanon. Chicago: Lotus Publishing Co.
Dupuis, Prof. N. F. The Principles of Elementary Algebra. Macmillan. $1.10.
Ellis, E. S. From the Throttle to the President's Chair. Cassell. $1.50.
Ellwood, J. K. Table Book and Test Problems in Mathematics. American Book Co. $1.
Goddard, Julia. Fairy Tales in Other Lands. Cassell. $1.25.
Griffin, Sir Lepel. Ranjit Singh. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Hale, E. E. East and West: A Story of Newborn Ohio. Cassell. $1.
Harvey, Emeline D. Gold Dust. Chicago: Lotus Publishing Co.
Henty, G. A. Condemned as a Nihilist. Scribners. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. In Greek Waters. Scribners. $1.50.
Herron, Rev. G. D. A Plea for the Gospel. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Hodges, Rev. G. Christianity between Sundays. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Holland, J. G. Bittersweet; Kathrina. 2 vols. Scribners. $2.50.
Johnston, R. M. Mr. Fortner's Marital Claims, and Other Stories. Appletons.
Johnson, Rossiter. The End of a Rainbow. Scribners. $1.50.
Kirby, W. F. Elementary Text-Book of Entomology. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Knox, T. W. A Close Shave. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co.
Leighton, Robert. The Thirsty Sword. Scribners. $1.50.
Lhomme, F. Charlet. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: *L'Art*; New York: Macmillan.
Mackie, Alexander. Macaulay's Essay on Warren Hastings. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Mathews, Harriet. Outlines of English Grammar. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 80 cents.
McAnally, D. R., Jr. How Men Make Love and Get Married. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 25 cents.
Millet, F. D. The Danube from the Black Forest to the Black Sea. Harpers. $2.50.
Palgrave, R. H. I. Dictionary of Political Economy. Third Part: Chamberlen—Conciliation. Macmillan. $1.
Peacock, T. L. Calidore, and Miscellanea. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Perkins, J. B. France under the Regency. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Rand & McNally's Pocket Map of Vermont. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Ridpath, J. C. The United States: A History. New ed. U. S. History Co.
Sabine, Julia A. At the End of the Rainbow. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. The Duchess of Berry and the Court of Louis XVIII. Scribners. $1.25.
Sauveur, L., and Van Daell, A. N. La Parole Française. New ed. F. W. Christern.
Sauveur, Marie-Louise, and Lougee, Susan C. Premières Leçons de Grammaire. F. W. Christern.
Savage, R. H. Prince Schamyl's Wooing. American News Co. 50 cents.
Stevenson, Rev. W. F. Praying and Working. Order of St. Christopher.
Tautphoeus, Baroness. The Initials: A Story of Modern Life. Putnams. $2.50.
The Schoolmaster in Literature. American Book Co. $1.40.
The Story of the Life of Mackay of Uganda. Armstrong. $1.50.
The Wee Widow's Cruise in Quiet Waters. Cassell. 50 cents.
Thompson, Mary S. Rhythmical Gymnastics. E. S. Werner. $1.
Thoreau, H. D. Autumn. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Tillier, Claude. My Uncle Benjamin. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Torrey, Bradford. The Foot-Path Way. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Tourgée, A. W. A Son of Old Harry. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.50.
Vincent, Jacques. Tiomane. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Ward, W. C. The Diary and Letters of Madame D'Arblay. 3 vols. Frederick Warne & Co. $3.
Werner, E. Enthralled and Released. Worthington Co.
Williams, Espy. The Dream of Art, and Other Poems. Putnams. 75 cents.
Young, Gerald. The Wild Pigs: A Story for Little People. Macmillan. $1.25.

Hyde's (W. De W.) Practical Ethics.
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Shaw's (E. R.) English Composition by Practice. 12mo, 203 pp. Mailing price, 83 cts.

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[Continued from page iii.]

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